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ART. I. *A History of the County of Brecknock.* In Two Volumes. Vol. I. containing the Chorography, General History, Religion, Laws, Customs, Manners, Language, and System of Agriculture used in that County. By Theophilus Jones, Deputy Registrar of the Archdeaconry of Brecon. 4to. pp. 371. 2l. 15s. Boards. Booth. 1805.

THOUGH the County of Brecknock is remote and sequestered, appears to be little distinguished by the fertility of its soil or by natural beauty, and cannot boast of either active commerce or flourishing manufactures, still some circumstances connected with it excite a considerable degree of interest respecting its history. It forms part of a considerable tract on our western shore, to which have been long confined the scanty remains of the antient population of the island, who still continue distinct from the rest of its inhabitants; differing from them in manners, habits, and language; and constituting almost the sole reliques of that restless, warlike, and mighty nation, whose sway was felt from the Hebrides to the Po, who long balanced the fortunes of Rome, who at different times overran various parts of Europe, and who penetrated even into Asia, leaving behind them traces of their prowess which subsisted for many ages. If provincial histories, then, be generally deemed curious, we must regard that which is now before us as presenting peculiar claims to attention; since it combines, as it were, the interest of foreign with that of domestic history.

We learn that this volume has also the advantage of being the production of a gentleman who is himself a native of the district of which he treats, and a descendant of the antient people whom he describes; who has always lived among them, who is master of their language, and who is necessarily well acquainted with their distinguishing characteristics. We cannot add, indeed, that the work indicates all the high finish and polish of the scholar, nor deny that on the score of authorship it deprecates rigid criticism: but it appears to be the

result of laudable pains, and is creditable to the author's diligence, fidelity, and judgment. With many readers, a considerable portion of the matter will perhaps have little interest: but they will find much that is of great value, and some of it in a high degree curious. To the arrangements and division of the history, criticism has little occasion for objecting; and we find scarcely a head connected with the writer's subject, that is not amply and satisfactorily treated. It embraces the antient and modern annals of the district, it enters very much at length into the character and distinguishing traits of the inhabitants, and it details all the more interesting particulars of its present state.

'Brecknockshire, now also called Breconshire, (the author informs us,) was antiently known by the name of Garthmarthrin, or Garthmadrin, Fox-hill or Fox-hold, from that species of vermin with which it is not improbable this country was much infested when it was thinly inhabited, and before its cultivation could be far advanced.

'For the time when this appellation was assumed or conferred, the historian looks in vain, not even the glimmering light of fable or tradition can he hope to receive or expect to conduct him in his researches. It is, however, worthy of remark, that this name remained in Brecknockshire until the dissolution of religious houses in Great Britain, or at least until the attainder of the last duke of Buckingham of the name of Stafford; for in the rolls in the augmentation office, in the 17th of queen Mary, among his possessions, are recited "rents of assize amounting to 11l. 15s. 8d. from tenants at will in Garthmadryn," within the lordship of Brecknock.

'This word is compounded of *Garth* and *Madrin*; the former, in the British language, signifies a clift, or a precipitous, or abrupt eminence, and is a synonym with *Allt* or *Gallt*, though the latter is generally covered with wood. Madrin is an obsolete word for a fox; the appellation of Garthmadryn, under such circumstances, must be admitted to be peculiarly appropriate to Breconshire, whose surface is a succession of undulations, and whose general description may be said with Leland, to be very *montanius*.

'Brecknockshire derives its present appellation from a prince or regulus of that country, of the name of Brychan, who ruled over it about the year of Christ 400, and died in 450, or thereabouts. From him, this part of the principality of Wales was called the Land of Brychan, which in the British language has been written at different periods, and according to the differing orthography of the times, Brechiniauc, Brechiniawg, Brechiniog, and Brecheiniog.'

This province has been in general considered as a part of the country of the brave Silures, who, under their renowned leader Caractacus, made so memorable a stand against the masters of the world: but the impartiality of the present writer induces him to sacrifice this distinction to truth; and he places

places Breconshire within the limits of the antient Demetia. It appears, however, that by old writers Siluria is taken in an extensive sense, so as to include Demetia.—The county is bounded on the East by those of Monmouth and Hereford; on the North by Radnorshire; on the North-west by Cardiganshire; on the West by Carmarthenshire; and on the South by Glamorganshire and part of Monmouthshire. This and Radnorshire are the only inland counties in South Wales.

'Within the circle which embraces Brecknockshire, for such it nearly is, (except on the North Eastern and South Western boundary, which is elongated and protrudes about four or five miles at each point), are contained 800 square miles, or 512,000 acres of land; and 300 acres of water, besides the space occupied by rivers and brooks. This county is a radius of thirty miles; in the center of which, as nearly as art or design could place it, (though it may be doubted whether it is to be attributed to either), is situated the town of Brecknock; from whence the traveller, proceeding along either of the four main roads, intersecting the county, and leading to Monmouthshire, Carmarthenshire, Radnorshire, or Herefordshire, finds himself on the confines of the county of Brecon at the end of fifteen miles, and the same thing may be said, as to the distance from Brecon towards Merthyr Tidvil, in Glamorganshire, on the South, although the present road has rather increased it, by taking a circuitous sweep to avoid the inequalities and other natural difficulties of the old one.

'The population of this county, from the returns made to parliament in 1802, may be estimated at 32,300. From these documents, it appears that the inhabitants then consisted of 31,633; but the regular and supplementary militia, amounting to 500 men, being then out of the county, and those in the army and navy, not being included, they may be fairly said to exceed 32,000. This population has varied of course here, as it has in all other counties, at different periods. At the beginning of the 17th century, when there was a considerable manufacture in woollen cloths in Brecon, and the neighbourhood, there are reasons to believe, that the inhabitants were much more numerous than after the Restoration. In 1673, returns were made, in obedience to a commission from the archbishop of Canterbury, by which we find that the population of Breconshire then amounted to about 14,000. Since that time, we see they have increased to more than double the number. Both the tables, (that formed from the returns in 1673, and that from those of 1802) may be confided in, and are as nearly correct as the course of human affairs will permit: for it is impossible to be precisely accurate on this subject.'

Though Mr. Jones does not appear to possess any inordinate Cambrian zeal, yet, when he speaks of the advantages of his native district, his philosophy seems to give way to natural feeling; and he observes:

'It is remarkable that though the quantity of rain falling in Brecon is nearly double that which falls in London in the same space of

time, yet the atmosphere there is not much colder than that of the metropolis, though rather more variable. The great excess of rain observable on a comparison with a London meteorological journal may be easily accounted for, by the vicinity of Brecon to the Southern range of hills, and particularly to the Bannau Brecheiniog. The great height of the beacons frequently intercepts the clouds charged with watery particles in their passage from the South or South West, from whence the rainy wind generally blows; thus separated or dispersed they descend in rain, and it must be admitted that when these mountains are covered with snow, we occasionally feel

> " The icy fang
> And churlish chiding of the winter's wind,
> Which bites and blows upon our bodies,
> Ev'n 'till we shrink with cold;"

' But these inconveniences (if such they be) are amply compensated for by the advantages we derive from them; the rough blast that sweeps their tops brings with it ruddy health into our vallies, and dissipates or drives before it those pestilential exhalations or fumes, which either nature or the works or wants of mankind produce to the prejudice of animal life; hence epidemic disorders are seldom known, and never so fatal here as in large towns in England, and to these hills we may in a great measure attribute our protection from accidents by lightning, which are rarely heard of in their vicinity. Imagination can scarcely paint objects more sublime and picturesque than the three lofty peaks of those nearly precipitous elevations, and continued as they are by a long range of mountains, which is terminated by the conical Sugar-loaf near Abergavenny, they form such an outline as can only be described by the pencil.'

Our provincial historian will (we hope) forgive us for saying that, in our search for natural beauty in his county, the marvellous peculiarities of this outline escaped us. We own that we never were able to connect it, so as to produce in our minds images equal to those that are impressed by many of the views which we had taken of Malvern. It may be, however, that we wanted proper guidance, that we were inadvertent, or that we were deficient in taste: or Welsh elevations may possess some charms which disclose themselves only to the organs of a native.

Giving Mr. Jones the utmost credit for his zeal and industry, and for his acquaintance with the language and the few remains of antiquity which have survived the ravages of time, we do not perceive that he has thrown any new light on the history of the period in which the Romans were masters of his country. All that he attempts may be resolved into a few unsatisfactory conjectures with respect to the scites of stations, and the tracts of roads. In bringing to a close this part of his labours, he remarks:

' Thus

'Thus far, I am indebted to the authors of Rome and the Empire for the information I have been enabled to collect: I am now obliged to have recourse to the MSS. of the Arwydd feirdd, or heralds of our country, and though this source of intelligence may be scanty, perhaps incorrect, and consequently not to be as implicitly relied upon as the authors I have hitherto quoted, they are intitled to considerable attention; they are systematically arranged, cautiously selected, and carefully preserved, by those parochial or provincial officers, whose duty it was to record the exploits and pedigrees of our ancestors. Should it be necessary to add another argument, there is one still behind, which will justify my reference to them—*they are the only documents to be found* that treat of that part of the principality now called Brecknockshire.'

The only question is whether they are in any sense documents, and not mere puerile legends, which supply nothing worthy of insertion in the page of history.

For the account of Brychan, a prince of this district in the fifth century, and of his numerous offspring, (some making them exceed forty, and others fifty,) we must beg leave to refer to the Brecon historian. Our principles and rules of criticism give us no aid in distinguishing between truth and falsehood, in the pages in which this complicated pedigree is examined. From this Brychan, almost all the saints of the principality, and also the gentry of the district, are made to descend; and the arms of several of these are said to be the same with those of the mother of Brychan. It would hence appear that coats of arms were in use among the aborigines of this island, long before they were known in other parts of Europe.

'In the year 1092, (says Mr. J.) allured by the former success of one Robert Fitzhammon and his accomplices, and perhaps invited by them to compleat the conquest of the principality, another swarm of freebooters entered into Brecknockshire, commanded by Bernard Newmarch or Bernardus de novo Mercatu, and played the same game with equal success, though perhaps with less colour of right, as Fitzhammon did in Glamorganshire. All historians are agreed as to the consequences of this irruption, but none of them have transmitted to us the occurrences which preceded the conquest, or attempted minutely to describe the field of battle where the fate of Bleddin was decided: on conjecture therefore in a great measure, assisted here and there by a glimmering of information from the broken and unconnected records of our meagre chronicles and MSS. must depend whatever knowledge can now be derived as to the incidents that happened at this period.'

Bernard de Newmarch parcelled out this province among his followers in the same manner as Fitzhammon had done in Glamorganshire, and the descendants of most of them remain in the county to this day.

Mr. Jones has investigated the ultimate disasters and fall of the last Prince of Wales, with all the diligence of a faithful historian, and all the anxiety of a patriot.

'In the year 1281, a war had just commenced between Edward the first and Llewelyn, which the humanity of Peckham archbishop of Canterbury endeavoured to prevent; he even undertook a journey into Wales for that purpose, heard with patience and apparently without prejudice the complaints of Llewelyn, dictated in language which would not disgrace the orators of any age or country, almost admitted the truth of his assertions and the force of his arguments, seemed to feel for the injuries of the prince and principality, and returned to England in expectation that they would be redressed, but the die was now thrown and the resolution of Edward irrevocably fixed. A wise and sound policy productive at the time (it is true) of calamities that may be deplored, and outrages which must be condemned, yet ultimately tending to promote the peace and happiness of both countries, suggested to this enterprizing monarch the necessity of uniting Wales with England; and the hatred of a rival in arms, as well as in talents, though inferior in force, confirmed him in his determination. Llewelyn ap Griffith had frequently and indeed recently foiled him in his attempts to subjugate the rough natives of the barren mountains, and had formerly sent him bootless back to the fat pastures of England, if not with disgrace, at least with mortification and disappointment; but that persevering potentate, skilled as he was in every branch of military tactics then known in Europe or in Asia, returned to the charge, and deaf to the representations of the ill-fated Lleweyln, sent the primate back with proposals so humiliating, that they were (as he of course concluded they would be) rejected with indignation; one of these proposals was, that the prince of Wales should desert his subjects, and submit to receive a pension of one thousand pounds a year in England; Llewelyn answered with great spirit, that if he were base enough to accept of it, such was the honest pride of his people, that they would not suffer him to enjoy it, or permit him to descend so far below his rank. Here the archbishop, whose conduct hitherto was so amiable, lost at once the high character he had acquired. Intimidated by the power or compelled by what perhaps he thought his duty to his sovereign, he not only condescended to convey terms which he knew to be unreasonable and only calculated to wound the feelings of an injured prince, but he absolutely (when they were not approved of) thought it necessary to employ the censures of the church, and to send Llewelyn and all his adherents *to the Devil,* for what he called their invincible obstinacy.

'Both sides now prepared for war; the first efforts of the Welsh prince were successful: a considerable body of the English having crossed the strait or narrow channel between Anglesea and Caernarvonshire, were cut to pieces, and Llewelyn overran Caerdiganshire and a great part of Caermarthenshire; but the fortitude, the perseverance, the talents and the forces of Edward, where he commanded in person, were irresistible; "his banners were fann'd by the crimson

wing of conquest wherever they waved;" a retreat therefore to the almost inaccessible heights and fastnesses of Snowdon was the only expedient left to the Britons for avoiding present death or future slavery. This was adopted, and Llewelyn might have remained sometime secure from attack, unless his supply of provisions was intercepted; of this disaster he seems to have been apprehensive, and in order therefore if possible to prevent it and to distract the attention of Edward, who was at Conway, he marched with a small body of men to Montgomery, and from thence into Radnorshire, where, as well as in Brecknockshire, he had a considerable number of friends, for he was the idol of his countrymen, or as an old chronicle describes him, "he was the captayne, the prayse, the law and the light of nations." The correspondence he held in this part of the country was by some means or other made known to the English court, and it was to discover his intrigues and to counteract his designs, as well as to *fasten* upon his lordship of Brecknock, that Humphrey de Bohun was now sent down into this country: unfortunately for the prince of Wales he was too successful in both the objects of his mission. Llewelyn's friends were either intimidated or persuaded to desert him, his enemies were encouraged, and a considerable force raised to oppose him. Since the death of the last William de Breos, his widow and son-in-law possessed little more than a nominal dominion over this country: the descendants of the Norman knights preserved an attachment to the family of their seignior or lord paramount, but we have just seen the Welsh inhabitants of the town of Brecknock itself, the seat of his government, lately submit voluntarily to their favorite hero, and native chief; while Humphrey de Bohun the father of the present Humphrey, involved as he was during the whole course of his life in continual troubles and perpetual skirmishes and warfare, had neither power or leisure to enforce the obedience of his tenants in the principality; but the case was now widely different; aided by the name and authority of the king of England, the arms or the arguments of Humphrey, the son, prevailed with his dependants, and made even an appearance or attempt at resistance, folly. This compleat change in the government and politics of the country, effected with much secrecy, as well as expedition, was perhaps not perfectly known to Llewelyn; led by the promises and flattered with the hopes of assistance held out to him by some men of power in the hundred of Builth and the neighbourhood, he ventured to march with his little army to Aberedwy in Radnorshire, three miles below Builth, on the banks of the river Wye, where it is said he expected to have held a conference with some of his friends: here however he found himself fatally disappointed, for instead of allies and partizans, whom he was encouraged to look for, he perceived he was almost surrounded in the toils and trammels of his adversary. A superior force from Herefordshire having had notice of his route, from some of the inhabitants of this country, approached under the command of Edmund Mortimer and John Giffard. Llewelyn finding from their numbers that resistance would be vain, fled with his men to Builth, and in order to deceive the enemy, as there was then snow upon the ground, he is said to have caused his horse's shoes to

be reversed, but even this stratagem was discovered to them by a smith at Aberedwy, whose name as tradition says, was Madoc goch min mawr, or red haired wide mouthed Madoc. He arrived at the bridge over the Wye, time enough to pass and break it down, before his pursuers could come up with him; here therefore they were completely thrown out, as there was no other bridge over the Wye at that time, nearer than Bredwardine, thirty miles below.

'Thus foil'd and diappointed of their prize for the present, the English immediately returned downwards to a ford known to some of the party, about eight miles below, near a ferry called Caban Twm Bach, or little Tom's ferry boat; in the interim, it should seem Llewelyn must have gained sufficient time to have distanced his followers, if he had made the best use of it, but he had not yet abandoned the expectation of meeting with assistance, and some hours may have been employed with the garrison of the castle of Builth, who, awed by the approach of Mortimer, refused to treat with or support him. Stowe says, "he was taken at Buelth castle, where using reproachful words against the Englishmen, Sir Roger le Strange ran upon him and cut off his head, leaving his dead body on the ground." It is by no means improbable that he should have accused the garrison of Builth and the inhabitants of that country of perfidy, and (as Stowe says) used reproachful words towards the English; he may also have bestowed upon the men of Aberedwy, as well as of Builth, that epithet which has stuck by them ever since*, but he certainly was not slain at Builth castle, or by Sir Roger le Strange, for being here repulsed by those from whom he expected support, and baffled in his attempts to reduce them to obedience, he proceeded Westward up the vale of Irvon on the Southern side, for about three miles, where he crossed the river a little above Llanynis church over a bridge called Pont y coed, or the bridge of the wood, either with an intention of returning into North Wales through Llanganten, Llanavan fawr, Llanwrthwl, and from thence into Montgomeryshire, or perhaps of joining his friends in Carmarthenshire and Pembrokeshire, to oppose whom Oliver de Dyneham had been sent by the directions of the king of England, as appears by his letter from Rhuddlan. This passage once secured, he stationed the few troops who accompanied him on the Northern side of the river, where, from the ground being more precipitous and much higher than the opposite bank, and at the same time covered with wood, a handful of men were able to defend the bridge against a more numerous enemy. In this situation he preserved a communication with the whole of Brecknockshire, and as he supposed the river was at this season of the year impassable, he waited with confidence and security, while he commanded the pass, in hopes to hear further from his correspondence, or in expectation of being reinforced from the Westward; by this means the English forces gained sufficient time to come up with him, and appearing on the Southern side of the Irvon, made a fruitless attempt to gain the bridge: here they

'* Bradwyr Aberedwy, Bradwyr Buallt. Traitors of Aberedwy, traitors of Builth.'

probably

probably would have been compelled to have abandoned the pursuit, or at least Llewelyn might have escaped in safety to the mountains of Snowdon, if a knight of the name of Sir Elias Walwyn (a descendant of Sir Phillip Walwyn of Hay) had not discovered a ford at some little distance, where a detachment of the English crossed the river and coming unexpectedly upon the backs of the Welsh at the bridge, they were immediately routed, and either in the pursuit or while he was watching the motions of the main body of the enemy, who were still on the other side of the river, he was attacked in a small dell about two hundred yards below the scene of action, from him called Cwm Llewelyn, or Llewelyn's dingle, and slain unarmed (as some say) by one Adam de Francton, who plunged a spear into his body, and immediately joined his countrymen in pursuit of the flying enemy. When Francton returned after the engagement in hopes of plunder, he perceived that the person whom he had wounded, (for he was still alive) was the prince of Wales, and on stripping him, a letter in cypher and his privy seal were found concealed about him: the Englishman, delighted with the discovery, immediately cut off his head, and sent it (as the most acceptable present that could be conveyed) to the king of England: the body of the unfortunate prince was dragged by the soldiers to a little distance where the two roads from Builth now divide, one leading to Llanafan and the other to Llangammarch; here they buried him, and this spot has been ever since known by the name of Cefn y bedd or Cefn bedd Llewelyn, the ridge of Llewelyn's grave; a copy of the letter found upon him, was soon afterwards sent by Edmund Mortimer to the archbishop of Canterbury, who was then at Pembridge in Herefordshire, to beforwarded to the king: the primate in the course of conveying this transcript to his majesty, adds such further intelligence as had reached him, from which it appears that dame Matilda Longspee had interfered upon hearing of Llewelyn's death, intreating he might be absolved from the sentence of excommunication, and his body buried in a consecrated place; this request Mortimer with the gallantry of a soldier and the affection of a relation, (though that kinsman was an enemy) warmly seconded, by stating an assurance he received from those who who were present when Llewelyn expired, that before his death he called for a priest, and that a white monk, who happened to be near, chaunted mass to him previous to his dissolution.

'Maud or Matilda Longspee countess of Salisbury, who thus kindly endeavoured to procure for the corpse of Llewelyn the rites of sepulture, and who married for her first husband William Longspee, the second earl of that name, was the only daughter and heiress of Walter de Clifford, governor of the castles of Carmarthen and Cardigan, by his second wife Margaret daughter of Llewelyn ap Jorwerth, aunt to the deceased prince. Maud lived sometimes at Clifford castle in Herefordshire, and at other times at Bronllys in Brecknockshire; she married secondly Sir John Giffard of Brimsfield in Gloucestershire, who in her right became seised of these possessions, and who was so situated that notwithstanding this family connection of his wife's, he was compelled by his allegiance to his sovereign to become

become one of the leaders of the English troops by whom Llewelyn was defeated and slain.

'No attention was paid to the request of Maud or the recommendation of Mortimer, and the remains of Llewelyn instead of being *bones of contention* among the loyal inhabitants of York and Winchester (as his brother David's afterwards became) were permitted to rot at Cefn y-bedd in unhallowed ground.

'Those who have attentively read the history of Llewelyn (of whatever country they may be) will I trust lament the fate, and sigh while they contemplate the fall of the last and greatest of the Welsh princes: his grandfather Llewelyn ap Jorwerth had courage and considerable talents, but he was savage in manners, variable in politics, fickle in his attachments, and brutal in his revenge: during the greatest part of his life he had a mere driveller to oppose, but the last Llewelyn had to contend with an Alexander, supported by superior numbers and revenues; in short he had all the virtues of his ancestor with scarcely any of his vices, he had infinitely more difficulties to encounter, and when he was favoured with the smiles of fortune he owed them entirely to his own merit and exertions.'

Incidentally, we meet with some account of the brave Sir David Gam; who, we find, was fourth in descent from Einion Sais, or the Saxon, so called because he had been long absent from his country, and resident in England, and who had been in the battles of Poitiers and Cressy.

'In consequence of an affray in the High Street of Brecknock, in which David unfortunately killed his kinsman Ritsiart fawr o'r Slwch, he was compelled to fly into England; and, to avoid a threatened prosecution for the murder, attached himself to the Lancastrian party, to whose interest he ever afterwards most faithfully adhered. There can be little doubt but that Shakespeare in his burlesque character of Fluellin, intended David Gam, though for obvious reasons, as his descendants were then well known and respected in the English court, he chose to disguise his name. I have called Fluellin a burlesque character, because his pribbles and prabbles, which are generally out Heroded, sound ludicrously to an English as well as a Welsh ear, yet after all, Llewelyn is a brave soldier and an honest fellow; he is admitted into a considerable degree of intimacy with the king and stands high in his good opinion, which is strong presumptive proof, notwithstanding Shakespeare, the better to conceal his object, describes the death of Sir David Gam, yet that he intended David Llewelyn by this portrait of the testy Welshman; for there was no other person of that country in the English army, who could have been supposed to have been upon such terms of familiarity with the king; and it must be observed, that Llewelyn was the name by which he was known in that army, and not Gam or squinting, by which epithet, though it was afterwards assumed by his family, he would probably have knocked down any man who dared to address him. By his behaviour on this memorable day, he in some measure made amends for a life of violence and raping, and raised his posterity into riches and respect; but alas! how weak, how idle is family

pride,

pride, how unstable worldly wealth! at different periods between the years 1550 and 1700, I have seen the descendants of this hero of Agincourt (who lived like a wolf and died like a lion,) in possession of every acre of ground in the county of Brecon; at the commencement of the eighteenth century I find one of them common bellman of the town of Brecknock, and before the conclusion, two others supported by the inhabitants of the parish where they resided, and even the name of Games in the legitimate line extinct*.'

The author thus closes his account of the ineffectual but glorious struggle made by the heroic Owen Glyndwr against one of the most crafty and able of our monarchs. Relating the defeat of Owen's eldest son Griffith, he observes that

'Owen, though weakened, was not conquered; for some years longer did he continue his exertions and set Henry at defiance, but the future operations of the war, though interesting, are irrelevant here; it is however worthy of observation that in the midst of these tumults, and while death stalked in a thousand shapes around him; the palace of Glyndwr was the seat of festivity and harmony; the martial spirit, the Awen or British muse, at this period, once more revived to celebrate the heroic enterprizes of her darling chieftain. Like himself, the bards of his time were irregular and wild, and as the taper glimmering in the socket gives a sudden blaze before it is extinguished, so did they produce a few scintillations of genius, which brought down to that age the recollection of the splendour of the former bards, and then sunk into ever-during darkness upon the fall of their patron and their friend. But though poetry flourished, learning certainly suffered from the boisterousness of the times, for such was the unrelenting and indiscriminate fury of the English, as well as the Welsh, that monasteries and their libraries containing many very valuable manuscripts were destroyed: a loss, the more to be lamented, as it can never be repaired. Henry began this unmanly and mischievous species of warfare, and Owen did not hesitate to follow his example when an opportunity occurred, and neither side bestowed a thought upon the injury they were doing to posterity by the destruction of those documents, which as men of learning, (for both had claim to that character) it should have been their study to preserve.

'It has been said of Owen as it was of Hannibal, that if he had known how to use victory as well as to obtain it, he would effectually have checked the power of an encroaching foe, and probably have restored to Wales her antient independence; he was undoubtedly brave, and fitted for command, but the errors of the Carthaginian were the errors of Owen; thus as Hannibal lost sight of the advantages of victory, when he loitered at Cannæ, so Glyndwr, if he could not join Percy before the battle of Shrewsbury, (as Mr. Pennant suggests) certainly wanted policy in not attacking the troops of

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'* Of this I have since had some reasons to entertain doubts, though the tradition of the family is against the legitimacy of that branch who now bear this name.'

Henry

Henry immediately after that enagement, and by this neglect ultimately sealed the ruin of his cause; and as the luxuries of Capua enervated the troops of Carthage, so did the plunder which the Welsh acquired, render them rich and factious, and Owen after a stand for several years against the whole power of England, at length found himself forsaken by his friends, and compelled to retire to the mountains for safety: even here he might have made terms with Henry; (indeed Stowe says, he was actually pardoned at the intercession of David Holbetche, Esq.) but he disdained submission, and determined to die as he had lived, *free.*

'After wandering about for a time from place to place unnoticed and unknown, he took up his last refuge at Monnington, or as some say Kentchurch, where in the arms of filial piety he found protection, and died September 20, 1415, aged sixty one.

'The place of this chieftain's interment has been a matter of doubt and inquiry among historians. Carte says, it was in the churchyard at Monnington, and the following extract from a MS. in the British Museum makes it probable; it at least infers a local tradition of the circumstances; "about the year 1680, the church of Monnington was rebuilt, in the church-yard of which stood the trunk of a sycamore, in height about nine feet, and two and a half in diameter, which being in the workmen's way was cut down: a foot below the surface of the ground was laid a large grave-stone without any inscription; on its being removed there was discovered at the bottom of a well stoned grave the body (as it is supposed) of Owen Glyndwr, which was whole and entire and of a goodly stature, but there was no appearance of any remains of a coffin; where any part of it was touched, it fell to powder; after it had been exposed for two days the stone was again placed over it and the earth was cast in upon it."

A charter granted to this town by a Duke of Buckingham, who was its lord, shews a spirit to which in later times we are become utter strangers. Almost all the burgesses appear to have been English, and the instrument closes the recital of their names with this expression, *whom we esteem to be English people;* and it limits the grant to them and their heirs *being English, both upon the part of their father and mother.*

'Upon the union of Wales with England, the interests and political events of both countries became so amalgamated, that the history of one is, generally speaking, the history of the other. Among the other lordships, marchers the little imperium in imperio of Breconshire ceased, and the lord of Brecon had from thence forward no greater authority than any other lord of a manor in England.'

The author next adverts to the part which this county took in the troubles of the seventeenth century: but here we find little to interest the general reader. It appears that, in these districts, very gross abuses were committed under pretence of religious reformation; and that the inhabitants were more characterized

characterized by prudence, than by firmness in their engagements to either party.

Mr. Jones seems to have examined with great care the original authorities, which regard the religion of his countrymen: but we cannot discover that, on this head, any addition is made to our previous information. He seems very anxious to vindicate the Druids from the charges imputed to them, of contaminating their altars by the sacrifice of human victims: but the testimonies appear to us to be too decisive in opposition to his hypothesis. We agree with him in thinking that Druidism was an elaborate and systematic superstition, and shewed considerable advances above the savage condition.—Mr. J. derives his materials of the church history of these parts in papal times from Giraldus. As we have lately had occasion to refer so much to that singular person, we pass over this portion of the present work; only observing that we are here furnished with a document which throws considerable light on the civil and religious state of Wales, viz. a petition to the Pope by the princes of Wales, complaining of the oppressive proceedings of the Archbishops of Canterbury, and of their own bishops.

Of the present state of religion in Breconshire, Mr. Jones thus speaks:

'It may be said that two parts out of three of the inhabitants call themselves of the established church*, the other third consist of Anabaptists, (a sect which has rapidly increased here of late) Methodists, Presbyterians and Independents; of the two latter, the presbyterians are the most numerous; but in this calculation of the num-

'* Without meaning the most distant reflection upon the establishment of the church of England, I cannot help observing, that there is a very great defect in the *general* system of education of youth intended for holy orders in our grammar schools in Wales, and to which I attribute in a great degree the increase of sectaries; those who are brought up as candidates for ordination are taught the Greek and Latin, but not the vernacular language of their own country. They can read Homer, Xenophon, or Grotius's works fluently, but they sleep over the Bible, hesitate at every other sentence, or continually mislay the accents in English or Welsh; the consequence of this is, that their audiences are either inattentive, or what is, if possible, still worse, the service of the church sounds ridiculously. Persons intended for the ministry should be taught daily to read publicly and in an audible voice, the church service as well as other religious publications in Welsh and English, and their errors should be corrected by the master, so that they may be habituated to officiate in a manner which may attract the attention of their hearers: for a vicious and faulty mode of pronunciation of words or sentences once contracted (it is well known) is seldom got rid of.'

bers

bers of the church of England, I include a sect who may (if it be not a solecism) be called no religionists: persons, who when it is necessary to make a profession of their faith, say, they are of the protestant established church, but who in fact never attend the worship of the church or indeed any other place of worship: it is much to be lamented that this sect (if I may so call those who are neither *gregarious* or *systematic*) are yet increasing very fast, particularly in towns; some are corrupted by superficial writers and superficial thinkers; these constitute the majority of this description; others again are led into this error from indolence and thoughtlessness; both are equally mischievous to the community, independent of the doctrines of rewards and punishment in a future state. It is with sorrow I observe, that this example of inattention (to call it by no worse name) is most frequently seen among those of superior stations in life; in which however they will find, they are followed closely, by those below them, down to the dapper tradesman and his spruce apprentice and shopman; a consequence which naturally follows, and which sooner or later, in proportion as the evil increases with more or less rapidity, must terminate in infinite mischief to the peace and happiness of society.'

Under the Lancastrian race, laws were passed against the Welsh, which are only to be matched by the late Popery code in Ireland. The author of this history, from whom we collect that he is an attorney, appears to us to be a more wise and profound legislator than a late Lord High Chancellor. Alluding to the excesses on the part of the Welsh, he remarks that 'it is to be lamented that the English did not rather attempt to convert the long subsisting enmity between the two countries into friendship, by adopting mild and lenient measures, than by continuing to preserve and increase it by sanguinary and oppressive laws.'

The arguments in the *Thoughts on the Catholic Question** would equally serve in defence of the Wallic and Popery Codes: but Henry VIII., whether from large views of policy, or from sympathy towards the oppressed and persecuted people from whom on the paternal side he derived his origin, annihilated at once the whole system, abolished all distinctions between his English and Welsh subjects, and gave to the two countries all the blessings of a real union. What have been the consequences? The Irish were never more hostile to every thing English than the Welsh were before this period; and the Welsh borderers had continued for centuries their predatory incursions: but the statute which brought them within the pale of the British constitution very soon put an end to all these evils. The Welsh were restored to their civil rights, they were emancipated, and they have ever since rather

* See our Review for June last, p. 197.

exceeded

exceeded than been inferior to their English fellow subjects in loyalty.—This law, uniting the two people, (our sensible historian tells us) 'has been cheerfully obeyed from that day to the present, and has reconciled us by a complete participation of all the privileges of Englishmen, to the entire theory, and nearly to the practice of the laws of England, hitherto imperfectly known to us and therefore only partially adopted or approved of.'

Let us not suppose that the Welsh had merited this treatment by good conduct; far from it; even the harsh descriptions in the "*Thoughts on the Catholic Question*" fall short of *their* excesses; which are stated in the preamble to an act that preceded by a very short time the statute of union. The ultimate remedy for these mischiefs was sought and found by the able counsellors of Henry VIII. in the measure of union. Had it been the inclination of the court, no doubt a cry could have been then raised against the barbarous Cambrians, the measure have been prevented, its authors have been held up to obloquy, and the bloodshed and misery consequent on its failure have been protracted to an indefinite period. At all times, instruments in abundance for such base purposes may be found.

The method taken by the advisers of Henry was to give his royal assent to a statute, which declares and enacts that

'Because "divers rights, usages, laws and customs be far *discrepant* from the laws and customs of this realm, and because that the people of the same dominion have and do daily use a speech nothing like ne consonant to *the natural mother tongue used within this realm*", some rude and ignorant people have made distinctions between the king's subjects of England and Wales, which has occasioned many quarrels betweeen them; to prevent which in future, the king "of a singular love which he beareth towards his subjects of his said dominion of Wales," and minding to extend the English laws to that country, and "utterly to *extirp*" all sinister usages and customs, and to bring the subjects of his realm and the said dominion into amiable concord and unity, with the consent and by the authority of parliament, enacts that from henceforth all persons "born and to be born in Wales shall have, enjoy and inherit all and singular freedoms, liberties, rights, privileges, and laws within this his realm, and other the king's dominions as other the king's subjects naturally born within the same have, enjoy, and inherit."

Never did a state adopt a measure more just and humane, or more expedient, or more beneficial in its consequences. The opponents of the repeal of the Wallic code pleaded the excesses of the Welsh and their language;—the cry now is, the excesses of the Irish and their religion. Our ancestors restored the Welsh at once to their civil rights, and their excesses disappeared;

disappeared; their language indeed remained, but it remained an inconvenience to none besides themselves. Let us imitate their example, and the excesses of which *we* complain will also disappear; and if the religion remains, it will be an inconvenience only to those who profess it. Henry, though he prided himself on his descent from the house of Lancaster, did not scruple to discard their policy in this instance, and to annul a code which originated with them.

Mr. Jones gallantly undertakes a defence of his countrymen against their oppugners; and to the feverish virulence of Pinkerton, he replies with successful pleasantry. Though, however, he has in the happiest manner exposed the extravagances of this writer, he does ready justice to his merits. In this contest, the Celt has decidedly the advantage; his behaviour is manly, liberal, and generous; he disdains a laboured defence, but contrives to make the accusations of his adversary recoil on himself: while the Goth indulges in a style of bitterness and rancour, not less disgraceful to letters than at variance with facts. In the manner in which he conducts himself, the Celt displays the qualities of a magnanimous and noble nature; while the Goth acts as if he thought that a claim to pre-eminence is established by being angry, supercilious, and arrogant. We have understood that, when a Celt of a superior order has been pointed out to Mr. Pinkerton, he has accounted for that superiority by ascribing it to a portion of Gothic blood: he will probably, then, attribute the sound judgment and excellent sense, of which Mr. Jones has given proofs in the present volume, to an admixture of this intellectually ennobling Gothic blood: but let him be cautious; he will find it difficult, on his own principles, to meet an insinuation which it is not improbable that the Cambrian may throw out, namely, that by some mischance, or rather series of mischances, repeated infusions of Celtic blood must have infected the genealogy of the *soi-disant* boastful Goth. While, however, Mr. Jones ably vindicates his countrymen from charges which are ill founded, he does not conceal the unfavourable side of the national character, but, in a fair delineation, allows the existence of that pride, irascibility, cunning, litigiousness, and ferocity in personal contests, which other writers have imputed to them.

We must now take our leave of this work, which we have found on the whole to be highly interesting. As a county history it scarcely yields to any of the same kind which have preceded it; and though several smaller imperfections are discoverable in it by the eye of criticism, we judged that we should better consult the interest of our readers by extending our quotations, than by dwelling on these blemishes.

Fourteen well engraved plates enrich this volume; and several long pedigrees, to the claims of which we cannot speak, are given in an appendix. Jo.

ART. II. *Transactions of the Society instituted at London, for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce;* with the Premiums offered in the Year 1805. Vol. XXIII.* 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. White, Becket, &c.

As the great object of this Society is to augment the conveniencies of civilized life by useful inventions and improvements, and to encourage the exertions of genius in all the departments of human talents and industry, it affords us considerable satisfaction to be informed of its flourishing state. The variety of the articles included in its Transactions renders them amusing publications: for they announce discoveries, which, if not individually, at least in their aggregate, are important, while at the same time they suggest hints for the farther exercise of inventive minds. In order to raise the comforts of social man to their highest point, much remains to be effected; and if the managers of political affairs were as fully bent on applying the best possible means to the attainment of that end which they profess to have in view, as scientific individuals seem to be in the subordinate operations of industry and art, the blessings of civilization would be more conspicuous than they at present appear.

When we state that 182 distinct premiums were offered by the Society in the year 1805, the reader must be aware that its attention is directed to a great number of objects; among which, if some should be deemed trifling, the majority will be pronounced to be of a contrary description. The first premium noticed in the Secretary's preface respects the preservation of the Fair Sex from the danger of being burnt, in consequence of the combustible nature of their drapery; and what man can peruse the accounts which are continually given of Ladies burnt to death by their dresses suddenly taking fire, without wishing to have some means devised for *rendering Muslin incombustible?* We should think that the Ladies themselves would be solicitous for such a discovery; and that, till an effectual method can be prescribed, they would employ immersion in alum water, or in solutions of some other earthy or metallic salts. The common fire-guards have their use: but, as these cannot prevent the flying out of

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* Vol. xxiv. for 1806, is just published, but we have not yet perused it.

sparks, instances of their inefficacy have occurred, and nothing short of making the dress itself incombustible can completely secure the person of the wearer from danger. Partial to the Sex, and sensible of their value, we entreat them to apprize manufacturers that *Muslin must go out of fashion*, unless they can invent a method of preventing it from catching fire. Such a suggestion would come in aid of the Society's premium.

AGRICULTURE.

This class contains papers which give details of planting 44 Scotch acres with *Firs* by Lord Breadalbane, in the parish of Kenmore, Scotland;—of 922,000 *Oaks* by Mr. Johnes, at Hafod, Cardiganshire;—of the culture of *Beans* which were cut green, and of *Wheat*, by Mr. Curwen of Workington-hall, Cumberland;—of the improvement of 308 acres of *Land lying waste*, by Mr. W. Taylor of Beamish, in the County of Durham;—of new invented *Sheep-shears* by Captain John Miller, of New Park, Axminster, Devon, the object of which is to prevent the animal from being cut, which often happens in the use of the common shears;—of a new mode of raising *White-thorn Hedges* merely by cutting the roots into lengths and planting them, by Mr. Taylor of Moston, near Manchester;—of the culture of *Carrots* by double furrowing, which moves the earth 14 inches deep, and their subsequent application, by Mr. Mason of Goodrest Lodge, near Warwick;—of the growth of *Timber Trees* in a plantation belonging to the Duke of Bedford, by Mr. Farey, of Upper Crown-street, Westminster;—of the forming and management of *a Water-meadow on Prisley Farm*, near Fletwick, Bedfordshire, by Mr. Smith of Buckingham-street, Adelphi*;—of the culture of *Turnips*, as an appendix to his former papers in the 22d Vol. of the Society's Transactions, by Mr. Watson of North Middleton, Northumberland;—and of planting *Osiers*, by Mr. Bull, of Ely.

Nothing in these communications requiring particular discussion or elucidation, we have considered it as sufficient merely to report in this concise manner the object of each writer.

CHEMISTRY.

The first and most important of the three articles of which this class is composed is an account by Mr. Vanherman, of Mary-le-bone-street, Golden-square, of his processes for making cheap and durable paints with *Fish-Oil*. This appears to be an useful discovery; and to gentlemen in the country, and to those

* A map of this meadow was given in the Communications to the Board of Agriculture, Vol. iv. p. 341.

who

who have large wooden buildings exposed to the inclemency of the weather, this cheap paint, which is not subject to blister or peel off by exposure to the sun or air, must be a desirable acquisition. Mr. V. observes that his paint, the vehicle of which is fish-oil, may be manufactured of any colour, and laid on by ordinary labourers. 'The highest price of any does not exceed three-pence per pound, and many of them so low as two-pence, in a state fit for use. White-lead which has been ground with prepared fish-oil, when thinned with linseed-oil, surpasses any white hitherto made use of for resisting all weathers, and retaining its whiteness.'

As the charges for painting are now very high, (though perhaps some *painters* avail themselves of this cheap mode of preparing their colours,) it cannot be amiss to extract Mr. V.'s own statement.

'*To refine one Ton of Cod, Whale, or Seal Oil, for painting, with the cost attending it.*

	£	s.	d.
One ton of fish-oil, or 252 gallons,	36	0	0
32 gallons of vinegar, at 2s. per gallon,	3	4	0
12lbs. litharge, at 5d. per lb.	0	5	0
12lbs. white copperas, at 6d. ditto,	0	6	0
12 gallons of linseed oil, at 4s. 6d. per gallon,	2	14	0
2 gallons of spirits of turpentine, at 8s. ditto,	0	16	0
	£43	5	0

252 gallons of fish-oil,
12 ditto linseed-oil,
2 ditto spirits of turpentine,
32 ditto vinegar

298 gallons, worth 4s. 6d. per gallon.

Which produces -	£67	1	0
Deduct the expence -	43	5	0
	£23	16	0 profit.

'*To prepare the Vinegar for the Oil.*

'Into a cask which will contain about forty gallons, put thirty-two gallons of good common vinegar; add to this twelve pounds of litharge, and twelve pounds of white copperas in powder; bung up the vessel, and shake and roll it well twice a day for a week; when it will be fit to put into a ton of whale, cod, or seal oil; (but the Southern whale oil is to be preferred, on account of its good colour, and little or no smell) shake and mix all together, when it may settle until the next day; then pour off the clear, which will be about seven-eighths of the whole. To this clear part add twelve gallons

of linseed-oil, and two gallons of spirits of turpentine; shake them well together, and after the whole has settled two or three days, it will be fit to grind white lead, and all fine colours in; and, when ground, cannot be distinguished from those ground in linseed-oil, unless by the superiority of its colour.

'If the oil is wanted only for coarse purposes, the linseed-oil and oil of turpentine may be added at the same time that the prepared vinegar is put in, and, after being well shaken up, is fit for immediate use without being suffered to settle.

'The vinegar is to dissolve the litharge, and the copperas accelerates the dissolution, and strengthens the drying quality.

'The residue, or bottom, when settled, by the addition of half its quantity of fresh lime-water, forms an excellent oil for mixing with all the coarse paints for preserving outside work.

'*Note.* All colours ground in the above oil, and used for inside work, must be thinned with linseed-oil and oil of turpentine.

'☞ The oil mixed with lime-water, I call *incorporated oil.*

'*The method of preparing and the expence of the various Impenetrable Paints.*

'First.—*Subdued Green.*

	£	s.	d.
Fresh lime water, 6 gallons,	0	0	3
Road dirt finely sifted, 112 pounds,	0	1	0
Whiting, 112 ditto,	0	2	4
Blue-black, 30 ditto,	0	2	6
Wet blue, 20 ditto,	0	10	0
Residue of the oil, 3 gallons,	0	6	0
Yellow ochre in powder, 24 pounds,	0	2	0
	£1	4	1

'This composition will weigh 368 pounds, which is scarcely one penny per pound. To render the above paint fit for use, to every eight pounds add one quart of the incorporated oil, and one quart of linseed-oil, and it will be found a paint with every requisite quality, both of beauty, durability, and cheapness, and in this state of preparation does not exceed two-pence halfpenny per pound; whereas the coal tar of the same colour is sixpence.'

In the subsequent pages, the method of mixing ingredients for other colours is explained; and this valuable paper concludes with

'A receipt for a constant white for the inside painting of houses; which paint, though not divested of smell in the operation, will become dry in four hours, and all smell gone in that time.

'*White Paint.*

'To one gallon of spirits of turpentine, add two pounds of frankincense, let it simmer over a clear fire until dissolved; strain it and bottle it for use. To one gallon of my bleached linseed-oil, add one quart of the above, shake them well together and bottle it also. Let any quantity of white-lead be ground with spirits of turpentine very fine,

fine, then add a sufficient portion of the last mixture to it, until you find it fit for laying on. If in working it grows thick, it must be thinned with spirits of turpentine.—It is a flat or dead white.'

The next paper mentions the premium voted to Mrs. Richardson of Willis's Place, Chelsea, for her invention for clearing *Feathers* from their animal *Oil*, by immersing them in lime water. This mode of divesting new feathers of their disagreeable smell may be employed in all families. After having been immersed 3 or 4 days in the lime-water, they are taken out, washed in clean water, and dried on nets.

Mrs. Morris, of Union-street, near the Middlesex-hospital, is the contributor of the last of the chemical papers. She has invented a method, by the use of potatoe-liquor, or the liquor obtained in the process of making potatoe starch, of *cleansing silk*, *woollen*, and *cotton goods*, without damage to the texture or colour; and this mucilaginous potatoe-liquor is to be applied with a wet sponge, and a little fine sand, for the purpose of cleaning dirty painted wainscots. The white fecula, the substance of which potatoe-starch and powder are formed, she says, will answer the purpose of Tapioca, and will make an useful nourishing food with soup or milk. We have never heard of its having been thus employed, but we can have no doubt of its being nutritious. Cooks may turn it to a good account as an article of diet.

Under the head of MANUFACTURES, three papers also occur.

Mr. Corston of Ludgate-hill communicates an account of his having succeeded in manufacturing *Plait* for *Hats* of *Rye-Straw* raised on poor land, equal to *Leghorn Plait*. Persons who have dealt many years in the article attest that they could not distinguish this home manufacture from the Italian Leghorn.

A machine for *cutting and crooking wires or teeth* employed in carding wool and cotton, invented by Mr. Beard of Coggeshall, in Essex, is described in the next paper. Even by the help of an engraving, it would be difficult to explain the construction of this ingenious machine, which makes two wires at once.

In the next paper, Mr. Austin of Glasgow, one of the three persons who first attempted the muslin manufacture in Scotland, explains his inventions in machinery for rendering *the art of weaving more expeditious and less expensive*, particularly for expediting the spotted, brocaded, or figured work in muslin, lawn, cambric, &c. A plate is annexed. At the time of making this communication, Mr. A. sent to the Society some specimens of types or figures formed of burnt clay or porcelain, for printing patterns on calicoes, or designs for articles to be sewed or tamboured. These are not liable to be destroyed by

fire, nor by lying in a damp place, and may be purchased at half (or even one fourth) of the price of those that are cut in wood.

Mechanics.

This class commences with an account by Mr. Smart, of the Ordnance-wharf, Westminster, of his invention for *cleansing Chimnies* by mechanical means, to obviate the necessity of employing Climbing Boys. The humane part of the public were much interested by a proposal, first printed in the St. James's Chronicle, in behalf of those miserable Beings, the *little sweeps*, who generally perform the operation of cleansing chimnies from soot. The cruelties used by their hard-hearted masters to force them up narrow flues, and the number of lives which must be sacrificed in this horrid task, have excited the feelings of the compassionate; and the Society offered a premium for an invention which should supersede the necessity of this practice. To Mr. Smart this reward has been adjudged; though it is admitted that his machine will not answer in every case. It is made of a brush, which opens and shuts on the principle of the umbrella, and is forced up the chimney by means of hollow tubes, with a cord passing through them.

'My men,' (says Mr. S.) have done some thousands, and I have six men and horses daily employed in it, which I mean to continue, until it is generally adopted by the master chimney-sweepers; many of whom, by the assistance of the Society for Improving the Condition of Climbing Boys have now my machines in use in London, and most of the large towns in England, and I hope, in time, will abolish the practice of children being sent up the chimnies. Some are so crooked that no machine will pass from the bottom, but they are few, about one in the hundred; these can be done with the same machine from the top; we have done a greater average number of narrow flues that no child could get up; others have been extinguished when on fire, by placing a wet cloth over the brush and putting it up the chimney.'

An explanatory plate is annexed, with full directions for using the machine. It is added in conclusion:

'Although Mr. Smart is engaged in a very extensive line of business more beneficial to himself, yet for the sake of humanity, and in order to prevent the miseries attending children who fall into the employment of common chimney-sweepers, he undertakes to provide persons to cleanse chimnies in his method, or will sell machines ready made for the purpose, at a moderate price.'

Mr. Gilpin, of Old Park Ironworks, near Shifnal, has detected the error in the application of chains in working over pullies, and has invented an improved *Crane* with flexible *Chains*, which

which are more safe than the best hempen ropes, and at the same time equally uniform. For the details, we must refer to the paper, with the subjoined engraving. The certificates state that the chains, in Mr. Gilpin's method of applying them, are complete substitutes for ropes; and that the Crane is constructed on stronger and more durable principles than those that are in general use.

A raised bench, furnished with a strap and treadle to enable *Shoe-makers* to perform their work *in a standing posture*, by Mr. Parker of Blue-Cross-street, Leicester-fields, obtained a premium of fifteen guineas: but we see little ingenuity in this invention, and we are not even informed that it is adopted by the trade. It is merely stated that the inventor, who is a boot-maker, uses it.

An elaborate paper explains the principles and use of a *Geographical Quadrant and Staff*, invented by Mr. Salmon of Woburn, which may be employed in navigation, and in land-surveying; being a facile instrument for ascertaining inaccessible distances, and for demonstrating and determining various problems in Geometry and Trigonometry.

A *Library Book-case-Bolt*, to facilitate the opening of both doors at once, which also will serve for folding doors and French easements, by Mr. Herbert of Bow-street, Covent-garden, is the subject of the next communication.

Various fatal accidents having happened to horses employed on rail-roads, when in descending declivities they have been overpowered by pressure, or fall by tripping, Mr. Le Caan, of Llanelly, in Carmarthenshire, has invented a *Check to Carriage Wheels* on rail-roads, which promises to be effectual. This check is prefixed to the fore wheel, suspended by chains fastened to the shafts, which relax when the horse falls by pressure or accident, allowing the Check to lock under the wheels, and thus instantly to stop the carriage.

We are next presented with an account of a *day and night Telegraph*, by Mr. Davis, Crescent, Kingsland-road, which is said not to be so liable to get out of order as those which are at present used, and capable of more changes: but it is not stated that any experiments have been actually made with it, nor that Government have expressed a disposition in any instance to adopt it. We mean not by this hint to detract from the merit of the invention; which, on the mere inspection of the plate, appears to have powers superior to those of the common six-shuttered telegraph.

A description, with a plate, of *an expanding band-wheel or rigger*, for regulating the velocity of machinery, is given by Mr. Flint the inventor; who has contrived, by means of

screws moving on a spiral thread, along grooves radiating from the centre, to enlarge or diminish the circumference of the band-wheel.

We are indebted to Mr. Salmon, the inventor of the Geographical Quadrant above mentioned, for an improvement in *Canal Locks*, for preventing a waste of water; a matter of much complaint in those parts of canals which run on the higher levels, especially during the summer. A view of the plate is necessary to give the reader an idea of elevating and depressing water in locks without waste.

The *Machine for cutting paper and the edges of books*, by Mr. Hawkins of Dalby-terrace, City-road, is said to facilitate the business of the stationer and bookbinder; and we can credit the report, since, in Mr. Hawkins's press, books and paper may be cut on the three edges at one fixing.

We owe to Mr. Ward of Blandford, Dorsetshire, a new *Striking Clock Movement*. 'The striking part of this clock is so far simplified that the whole train of wheels used in common clocks, together with the barrel and weight, are entirely superseded.' The advantages of this clock over common clocks are thus stated by the inventor:

'First.—That it is not attended with that disagreeable roaring which is frequently heard in the wheels and pinions of others, and particularly the fly pivots when in want of oil.

'Second —That the interval between the strokes is uniformly the same: the case is very different in other clocks, for as they get foul they always strike slower, and more so still when the weather is cold.

'Third —That in consequence of its simplicity, it is not liable to be out of repair.

'Fourth.—That it can be manufactured for considerably less expence.'

Mr. Antis, of Fulneck, near Leeds, is the author of the two following letters; one respecting a *detached Escapement of a Pendulum Clock*, which he had formerly mentioned to the Society; and the other relating to his improved *Door Latches*, which are not so liable to be out of order as those hitherto employed.

With a model of his invention, Mr. Watkins of Giltspur-street, West Smithfield, has sent to the Society, Observations on an improved *detached Escapement for Time-Keepers*, for ascertaining the longitude at sea, on a principle to reduce friction. This and the following paper by Mr. Hardy of New North-street, Red Lion-square, on a new *Compensation-Balance* for Time Keepers, will naturally attract the notice of the makers of time-measuring movements: but the general reader

will be unable to appreciate their merit, even with the help of the plates which accompany them.

We are lastly, in this class, presented with a communication from Mr. Prior of Nessfield, near Skipton in Craven, Yorkshire, giving an account of a *Larum* applicable to *Pocket Watches*. It requires some little knowlege of the construction of a watch to employ this machine, though, as Mr. P. remarks, it has but one wheel in it:—the main spring is wound up and stopped by a method entirely new; and it will be very useful to watch-makers, clock-makers, and others.

Colonies and Trade.

A Letter from Dr. Roxburgh, of Calcutta, the well known corresponding member of the Society, accompanied Specimens of the *Aldacay* or *Caducay Galls*, with which the yellow colour in the Indian Chintzes is formed. We shall extract from this paper the author's account of these Galls, and his subsequent hints on other unknown treasures of the East:

'The tree which produces the yellow myrabolans, mentioned in the foregoing passage, also yields a species of galls, of a very irregular shape and yellowish colour. When fresh they are lighter coloured, and darken by age, until they become dark brown, or nearly black. On the coast of Coromandel, where they seem to be better known than in Bengal, they are called Aldacay by the Telingas, and by the Tamuls, Caducay. I have never ventured so far in amongst the mountains as where the galls are found; but, from the information I have been able to collect, it seems that an insect punctures and deposits its eggs in the young tender leaves of the tree, which causes them to swell into the various forms the galls assume.

'They are sold in every market, being one of the most useful dying drugs the natives know. Their best and most durable yellow is dyed with them, and fixed with alum. With ferruginous mud they are used to dye black. They are also the chintz painters best yellow. Their astringency seems to be greater than that of the fruit, as an ink made with them resisted the weather longer than that which was made with the pulp which covers the nuts. I am inclined to think they are the Faba Bengalensis of our old Materia Medica writers.

'Upon the leaves of this tree I have found an insect, which I take to be the larva of a coccus, or chermes; they are about three eighths of an inch long, and a quarter of an inch broad; flat below, convex above, and composed of twelve annular segments. The whole insect is replete with a bright yellow juice, which stains paper of a very deep and rich yellow colour. Could these insects be collected in any quantity, I am inclined to think they might prove as valuable a yellow dye as the cochineal is a red.

'I beg, Sir, you will inform the Members of the Society, that it will yield me particular pleasure, to be in any shape instrumental in bringing under their notice as many, as in my power, of the numerous treasures, yet little known, with which this extensive empire abounds;

abounds; which, through their means, must essentially conduce to the advancement of arts, manufactures, and commerce; and, in the mean time, I beg leave to draw the attention of the Society to the following objects:

'First.—Resins, commonly called *dammer* in India. They are the produce of various trees, and, when boiled up with oil, are used instead of pitch, in the marine yards throughout India.

'Second.—A drying oil, or very thin balsam, extracted, by incision, from the trunk of a large tree, which I have called *Oleoxylon Balsamifera*. It grows abundantly in Chittagong, and is chiefly used in painting.

'Third.—Vegetable substances, and their extracts containing the tanning and astringent principles, abound in India, probably more than in any other country in the world.

'Fourth.—Substitutes for hemp and flax are numerous over Asia. In my essay on these, above twenty are already enumerated. If found to answer, of which there is little doubt if put to the test of fair experiment, they might soon form a considerable addition to the export trade of these countries, and of use to the manufactures of the mother country. This appears to be a most important object, deserving the greatest encouragement, even when on the best of terms with Russia.

'Fifth.—The coarse silks, spun by the wild tussah and domesticated Berinda worms. The latter is soft as shawl wool, and incredibly durable.

'Sixth.—The very fine, delicate, silky wool, the produce of the two trees, bombax pentandria and heptaphylla, if still found unfit for the loom, might answer for hats, or some other such purpose, where the very softest hair of animals is employed.'

This industrious naturalist is intitled to the thanks of his country.

From Upper Canada, a letter was received from Mr. Hughes, giving an account of the *Culture of Hemp* in that province. It is stated that two acres and half of a black loamy clay soil, after two ploughings, were sown broadcast with hemp seed about the middle of May 1803; that the hemp produced on this piece of ground was plucked about the middle of August; and that the produce amounted to 1843 pounds avoirdupoise weight.

The concluding paper contains a letter from Mr. Vondenvelden of Quebec, containing a brief description of the *Cotonnier* or cotton plant; and a suggestion that the silky substance, which it produces, may be profitably employed in the manufacture of writing-paper, by being mixed with linen or other rags.—The remainder of the volume consists, as usual, of Lists of the Rewards bestowed by the Society, of presents received in books and models, of the officers, and of the subscribing members.

Facing

Facing the title, is placed a portrait of Thomas Hollis, Esq. of Corscombe in the County of Dorset; and the preface commences with a brief notice of this respectable character. At the end, equally concise mention is made of that ingenious and truly classical artist James Barry, Esq. who died on the 26th of February, 1806, in the 65th year of his age; whose remains lay in state in the Society's great room, decorated by his immortal labours, and were interred in St. Paul's Cathedral between those of Sir Chistopher Wren and Sir Joshua Reynolds.

These volumes of Transactions certainly include a great variety of useful matter: but if the Society were disposed, it might be easily exhibited in a more compressed form.

Mo.y.

ART. III. *A Treatise on the Teeth of Wheels, Pinions, &c.* demonstrating the best Forms which can be given to them for the various Purposes of Machinery: such as Mill-work, Clock-work, &c. and the Art of finding their Numbers. Translated from the French of M Camus, with Additions. Illustrated by fifteen Plates. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Taylor.

THE translator has deemed it proper to usher in the treatise of his author with a preface, which, if it reminds us of the importance of the subject, does not convince us of the mathematical competency of the writer: for he says that 'the perfection of the most simple as well as the most complicated engines, depends almost entirely upon the due action of the teeth of the wheels with each other; or in other words, on the best form for ensuring their proper action with the least friction, and of course with the least wear and loss of power.' Now if we understand the work before us, *the least friction* is not the circumstance either accomplished or attempted in the epicycloidal form of teeth, but equable angular motion. No form can be given to teeth, so that both these advantages shall be obtained; and therefore, if we wish to investigate the form by which friction shall be avoided, we must suppose the angular motion to vary *not uniformly*: which uniformity, however, is preserved in De la Hire's and Camus's constructions. That it is an equable or uniform angular motion which is sought in M. Camus's investigations, one of the first passages in the work will prove: 'We may consider as the best form that can be given to the teeth of the wheels of any machine, that which will cause these teeth to be always, in regard to each other, in situations equally favourable; and which consequently will give the machine the property of being moved uniformly by a power constantly equal.'

After

After having premised the definition of certain technical terms, the author proceeds to shew what will be the ratio of the forces, when the wheels act on each other by means of their teeth, with the forces when the wheels act by contact, or by teeth infinitely small. This ratio, assuming a general form for the teeth, is variable; and the inquiry is to be directed towards that form with which this ratio shall be constant.

If we join the centres *C*, *O*, of the two wheels *A*, *B*, and divide the line joining the centres, in the ratio which the number of teeth in wheel *A* ought to have to the number in the wheel *B*, and call the point of division *D*, then a line drawn perpendicularly to the common tangent of two teeth in contact will intersect the line of the centres in some point, *E*; and the forces, of which we have spoken, will be to each other as *CD*. *EO*: *OD*. *EC*.

The best form of teeth being that in which the perpendicular to the parts of the teeth in contact passes through the same point *E*, the inquiries of M. Camus in the 22d page are directed towards such form; and he accordingly explains the manner in which Epicycloids and Hypocycloids may be generated: for in these curves a perpendicular to the tangent at the point of contact will always pass through the same point in the line of the centres, the generating circle being the same for the two *basis* circles, the radii of which circles are proportional to the angular velocities of the wheels. If the two *basis* circles remain the same, and the generating circle vary, different epicycloidal curves will be generated; all (under certain limitations) producing equable motion. In a certain value of the radius of the generating circle, (when it is equal to half the radius of the circle within which it revolves,) the hypocycloid becomes a right line tending to the centre of the wheel. In another case, the hypocycloid becomes nearly a point; that is, when the radius of the basis circle becomes nearly equal to the radius of the wheel. It is easy to see to what cases, in practice, these two forms will apply.

M. De la Hire preceded M. Camus in his reasonings and demonstrations; and in his tract *De l'Usage des Epicycloides dans les Méchaniques*, he taught that the teeth of wheels for the production of equable motion should possess an epicycloidal form. The demonstrations of De la Hire are by no means concise, nor very perspicuous; and M. Camus has not much improved on his model.—Neither of these gentlemen, indeed, has considered the subject in all its extent and variety. Epicycloidal curves possess not solely the property of imparting equable motion: equable motion may be effected in an infinite number of ways; "*et quoniam*," says Euler, "*hoc infinitis modis præstari*

præstari poterit, inde quovis casu eum, qui ad praxin maxime accommodatum videbitur, eligere licebit."

The investigation of the form that shall be most commodious for practice is of no small consequence; and although Euler distinctly perceived the proper and legitimate object of inquiry, yet he failed (except in one instance) in deducing from his analytical conclusions, simple and commodious constructions. Towards the end of his memoir, he shews, but not as a deduction from his differential formulæ, that the involute of a circle is a proper form for the tooth of a wheel: with such a figure, equable motion would be obtained; and such a figure admits of an easy mechanical description.

Euler's investigations are far more profound and scientific than those of either Camus or De la Hire: but they are more interesting to the analyst than useful to the mechanic; and their great author, probably passing on to other inquiries, has not derived from his formulæ all the advantages which may be obtained. Ought they not to comprehend all that Camus and De la Hire have done?

M. Camus has paid much attention to the interests of the practical mechanic; and if sufficient time be given to his descriptions and demonstrations, he cannot fail to be understood: but to the mathematician who is only slightly and moderately versed in the practice of demonstration, this author's reasonings and deductions will appear tediously dilated. In proving a simple case of equilibrium from the property of the lever, and in shewing that the virtual velocities of the weight and power are inversely as the weight and power, he consumes twenty pages. This is very unnecessary; for though every thing should be made clear, and no important step omitted, yet, after these conditions are observed, brevity becomes an excellence.—The description of the manner of generating epicycloids is sufficiently well executed: but we by no means are inclined to commend the transition from the preceding matter to these curves. The author no where distinctly states by what peculiar property these curves are subservient to the end which is to be attempted in the formation of the teeth of wheels.

In passing these censures, it is, however, our duty not to forget that the original of the present work was written fifty years ago. Since that time, mathematical science has been much extended and improved: authors now write with enlarged views, and aided by more powerful instruments of calculation; and as they address more enlightened readers, if they do not *labour to be brief*, they may yet be concise, and still avoid

avoid obscurity.—That M. Camus wrote under the disadvantages of a calculus which was nascent, and unconfirmed in strength, we have a sufficient proof in his manner of finding the curve proper for the teeth of the wheel when the *teeth* of the pinion are small cylinders, the centres of which lie in a circle whose centre is that of the pinion. This curve he forms by first constructing an epicycloid, and then drawing a curve through the intersections of a number of circles of equal radii, the centres of which all lie in the aforesaid epicycloid. Here he follows De la Hire; and in this process, both these gentlemen required, for a better construction, the refined analysis of Euler.

Since the time of Camus, mathematicians have not directed much attention towards this subject. Euler indeed, as we have mentioned, employed on it the powers of Analytic Science, but not with the happiest result. He effected what no one had done before him, a general solution of the problem, and shewed that there was an infinite variety of ways for forming the teeth of wheels: but, out of this variety, he was not able to select more than one or two which he could recommend to the practical mechanic: for, when we look to the wants of the arts, it is not sufficient to propose a curve by assigning its equation, but it is necessary to shew by what means it may easily be traced out and constructed. The curves which answer the conditions of the problem of the form of the teeth of wheels, and which moreover can be easily described, are the involutes of circles; and these forms, Euler strongly recommends.

The substance of this tract was comprized in a paper inserted in the Paris Memoirs for 1733; and if our advice had been asked in the case of the publication before us, we should not have suggested a mere translation of the original work. A volume of the same size, containing the substance of the author's reasonings, (for who can admire or would perpetuate his prolixity?) interwoven with subsequent discoveries, would have been a better present to the public. As, however, we are not disposed, in expectation of excellencies which may never arrive, fastidiously to reject every thing that has in it the leaven of infirmity and imperfection, we consider it as our duty moderately to approve and recommend the present translation.

R.W.

ART.

ART. IV. *Surgical Observations, Part the Second:* containing an Account of the Disorders of the Health in general, and of the digestive Organs in particular, which accompany local Diseases, and obstruct their Cure: Observations on Diseases of the Urethra, particularly of that Part which is surrounded by the prostate Gland: and Observations relative to the Treatment of one Species of the *Nævi Materni*. By John Abernethy, F.R.S. Hon. Member of the Royal Medical Society, Ed. &c. &c. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co.

WE always anticipate much satisfaction from the perusal of Mr. Abernethy's publications: which, though not unfrequently deficient in some of the more minute points of composition and arrangement, possess the essential requisites for rendering a scientific work of permanent value; since they display accurate observation, extent of knowlege, and above all, the most perfect candor. The present volume will not, we think, materially add to the reputation of the author, but it will not derogate from it; for if it does not contain much that can be regarded in the light of important discovery, it affords a large body of useful practical information.

The principal object in this work is to point out the connection between local and general disease; and more particularly to shew that a derangement in the action of the digestive organs produces or maintains symptoms, which on a cursory inspection would be referred altogether to a topical affection of some other part of the system. Whether the disorder of the chylopoietic viscera is, in any instance, considered as the original cause of the complaint, does not seem very clearly expressed: but Mr. Abernethy's general idea is, that the topical affection previously exists, and excites an irritation of the whole nervous system, which, through the medium of the sensorium, produces derangement of the digestive organs; and that this re-acts, and greatly aggravates the original disease. The general fact is, we believe, admitted by every practitioner; and we conceive that no one, who has the smallest pretensions to science, can be ignorant of the connection that is pointed out by Mr. Abernethy. We cannot, therefore, acquiesce in the observations which we find in the commencement; whence it might be inferred that the practitioners of surgery are, in general, regardless of the state of the constitution, and confine their attention to the treatment of the topical affection for which their aid is immediately required. We entirely acquit the author of the wish to cast any invidious reflections on his professional brethren: but it must be confessed that his observations might bear that construction, had

they not proceeded from a quarter to which such a suspicion cannot attach.

Mr. Abernethy begins by describing the nature of the disease which attacks the digestive organs, under the circumstances above mentioned. The appetite is impaired; the fæces are scanty, and of an unusual colour and consistence; the tongue is dry and furred; the urine is turbid; and pain is experienced on pressing the region of the stomach. We meet with a considerable number of observations on these symptoms, particularly the appearance of the tongue and the fæces. Mr. A. endeavours to point out the connection subsisting between the alteration which they experience, and the diseased condition of the stomach; and to shew how far this latter can be predicted, by attending to the appearances which they present. The functions of the liver are often affected by the diseases of the stomach; and conversely, this latter organ generally participates in any derangement which takes place in the biliary secretion. It is accordingly found that, in the disease which we are now considering, the bile is frequently either diminished in quantity, or vitiated in quality. Mr. Abernethy infers, from actual examination, that this train of morbid symptoms may exist for a considerable length of time, and yet that no change is produced in the structure of the parts; a still longer continuance, however, of this disordered state, has excited a degree of inflammation, and even ulceration, in the coats of the large intestines.

As to the general principles of treatment which the author adopts, they are founded on the supposition that the digestive organs are in a state of weakness and irritability; and he accordingly attempts 'to diminish the former and allay the latter.' At the same time, he endeavours to restore the secretions of those parts, which he thinks are disordered, with respect both to quantity and quality. The principal agents which he employs are different combinations of tonics and purgatives; and when the biliary secretion is defective, he recommends small doses of mercury. On the whole, it would appear that the state of convalescence continued to advance, nearly in proportion as a regular condition of the alvine discharge was procured.—The coincidence between Mr. Abernethy's plan of treatment, and that which was lately recommended by Dr. Hamilton, is at once striking and satisfactory; the more so, because we are informed that the present volume was written before the publication of that of Dr. Hamilton.

Mr. Abernethy next proceeds to relate a number of cases in confirmation of his doctrine. We learn from them that

patients,

patients, who exhibited every symptom of diseased spine, paralysis of the lower extremities, and different affections of the nervous system, were entirely cured by an attention to the state of the stomach, after the usual topical remedies had been applied without effect. The same method of treatment was found equally efficacious in relieving affections of the head, which were originally produced by local injuries; and from the rapidity of the cure, it seems impossible that any derangement of structure could have taken place, although the symptoms were such as would in general have been referred to this cause. Among the diseases which Mr. Abernethy subdued by directing his attention exclusively to the digestive organs, are some cases of the kind which he formerly described as resembling syphilis in every respect, except their being removed without mercury. Our sentiments on this subject we have already expressed in our review of the first part of these *Observations*; and we have still to remark that, although we do not entertain any doubt of the accuracy of the writer's statements, the disease remains undefined: besides that the event of a case is not a sufficient, nor indeed a proper ground for judging of its nature. We may farther state that the result of the practice in these instances is not so decidedly favorable as in some of the other affections. By pursuing the same plan of treatment, unhealthy abscesses, indurated glands, spasmodic strictures of the œsophagus, a disease which exhibited the more obvious symptoms of phthisis, and other affections that would at first view have been unequivocally referred to a topical cause, were relieved or cured.

Having related, with considerable minuteness, the result of his experience in the treatment of these complaints, the author proceeds to state the information which he has obtained by dissection, 'relative to the causation of other diseases by those of the digestive organs.' It appears that apoplexy, paralysis, and other maladies, which sometimes depend on mechanical injury of the brain or nerves, are at other times produced without any visible derangement of structure; and Mr. A. concludes in general, 'that disorder and abolition of the nervous function may take place, without any organic affection of the brain.' In such cases, the digestive organs will probably be found to be the primary seat of the complaint.

After this account of the contents of Mr. Abernethy's work, we need not say any more in commendation of it; the value of it will be sufficiently obvious to those who are engaged in the practice of medicine, or who feel anxious for its improvement.

Bos.

ART. V. *Magna Britannia*; being a concise Topographical Account of the several Counties of Great Britain. By the Rev. Daniel Lysons, A.M. F.R.S. F.A.S. and L.S. Rector of Rodmarton in Glocestershire. And Samuel Lysons, Esq. F.R.S. and F.A.S. Keeper of His Majesty's Records in the Tower of London. Vol. I, containing Bedfordshire, Berkshire and Buckinghamshire. 4to. pp. 742. 3l. 3s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

WE are called on the present occasion to exercise a pleasing part of our duty, in announcing to our readers the successful commencement of a splendid work, by persons who are as generally well qualified for the undertaking as any whom the times can produce, and who seem to have spared no trouble nor diligence on that part of it which now lies before us. Every one, we are of opinion, who turns over these pages, will estimate highly the attainments, the judgment, the candor, and the zeal, of the learned authors; and we believe that none will deny that in a great and wealthy country such as ours, a work of this nature is a desideratum, the supply of which presents obvious and irresistible claims to public patronage and support.

In stating the object and outlines of their plan, Messrs. Lysons observe that

'Although copious and well executed histories of several counties have been published, and although the *Britannia* of the learned Camden has been universally and justly regarded as an excellent work relating to the kingdom at large; yet as the former, besides being for the most part very scarce, are moreover so bulky, as to form of themselves a library of no inconsiderable extent; and as the *Britannia* gives only a general view of each county, it appeared to us that there was still room for a work, which should contain an account of each parish, in a compressed form, and arranged in an order convenient for reference.

'These considerations have given rise to the following work, in which all matters that would readily admit of such an arrangement are reduced under distinct heads; and the brief account of the descent of property, and other local particulars in each parish, are classed alphabetically; and we have endeavoured rather to make ourselves clearly understood, than to display a more ornamented style, which we conceived less adapted to a work of this kind. With respect to the plates, we have selected such subjects as presented the greatest variety, and appeared to us to be the most interesting; and we flatter ourselves, that the manner in which they are executed, will be found adequate to convey an accurate idea of the objects intended to be represented *.

'* A set of finished engravings of views selected from the counties of Bedford, Berks, and Bucks, executed by the late Mr. William Byrne, from drawings by the best masters, are published by Messrs. Cadell and Davies, at the same time with this volume.'

Of

Of this arrangement, as well of the counties as of the parishes, we do not fully approve; and we should have rather chosen a method which proceeded either on political or geographical grounds. We have no preference for the Dictionary-form, except where the multiplicity of the matter renders it expedient.

The sources from which the materials of this volume have been taken are thus exhibited;

'The materials from which this work has been compiled, independently of those derived from the best printed authorities, have been drawn from the following sources; 1st, *Ancient Records and Manuscripts* preserved in the British Museum, and in various publick offices; particularly from that inexhaustible treasure of antient historical evidences, His Majesty's Records in the Tower of London, which we have had the advantage of consulting at all times, and the Records of the Augmentation office, to which we have had free access through the liberality of John Caley, Esq. which we have experienced on former occasions; our thanks are also due to the Right Hon. George Rose, to Robert Gray, Esq., Richard Gray, Esq., and Robert Harper, Esq., for the permission they have given us to consult any of the records at the Chapter-house, Westminster, the Duchy of Cornwall office; the Auditors of the Land-Revenue office, and the Duchy of Lancaster office; and to Ralph Bigland Esq., Norroy King at Arms, Francis Townsend, Esq., Windsor-Herald, and George Naylor, Esq., York-Herald, for the readiness with which they have furnished us with such information as we stood in need of from the College of Arms; and, 2dly, *Personal Surveys* in each county, where we have acquired much valuable information, particularly from the Clergy and the gentlemen of the profession of the Law, to whom our acknowledgments are due for their ready assistance. We are also much indebted to the Lords Bishops of Lincoln and Sarum, for their kind assistance in their respective dioceses, in which the three Counties contained in this volume are included; and to the Lord Bishop of Cloyne for his valuable communications on the subject of the Roman Roads and Stations in each county.'

It is also observed:

'A longer space of time has been occupied in collecting materials for this volume than we had expected: this, however, will not occasion much surprise when it is considered that there are no histories either of Bedfordshire, Berkshire, or Buckinghamshire; and that though the present work is much compressed, the collections made for it were nearly the same as for many County-histories. Various alterations in the state of property, and other particulars, have doubtless occurred since its commencement: such as have come to our knowledge are noticed at the end of the volume; and for the rest, as well as for such errors, as are almost inseparable from a work of this kind, whatever care has been taken to avoid them, we rely on the candour and indulgence of the public.'

The heads under which the accounts of each province are included are the following: antient Inhabitants and Government: Historical Events: the antient and modern Divisions: the ecclesiastical Divisions: Monasteries and Hospitals: Market and Borough Towns: Population: Principal Land-owners at various Periods, and principal extinct Families: Nobility of the County, and Places which have given Titles to any Ranks or Branches of the Peerage: Noblemen's Seats: Baronets extinct and existing: Principal Gentry and their Seats: Non-resident Families: Geographical and Geological Description of the County: Produce: Fossils: Rare Plants: Rivers: Roads: Manufactures: Roman Remains: Roman Roads and Stations: Church Architecture: Stained Glass: Rood-Lofts: Screens, &c.: Fonts: Stone Stalls and Piscinæ: Antient Tombs: Monastic Remains: Sites of Castles, and Castellated Mansions: Camps, and Earth-works. Then follows the Parochial Topography, which is alphabetically arranged. The whole of this part is very elaborate, and descends more into particulars than might have been expected. Under the head of each parish are noticed the events which distinguish it, the natives who have imparted interest to it, and the edifices which in antient or modern times have adorned it: the whole forming a very complete summary of its history and antiquities. The accounts are so minute and so detailed, that they might sanction a conjecture that the learned writers had long resided at each place which they describe: but had their pages contained fewer pedigrees, and entered more fully into Statistics, they certainly would not have been less acceptable to many readers, and to ourselves among the number.

We select the succeeding narrative rather to give the reader an idea of the scale on which the work proceeds, than an account of its own particular interest. It is the head of *Historical Events in Bedfordshire*;

'The first historical event which we find relating to this county, is the battle fought at Bedford between Cutha, or Cuthwulf, brother of Ceauline, king of the West Saxons, and the British army, in the year 571, or as some say 580. The Saxons proved successful; and the consequence of the defeat to the Britons was the loss of four of their principal towns, Lygeanburgh, Eglesburgh, Bennington, and Egenesham. The first has, by some antiquaries, been supposed to be Loughborough in Leicestershire; by others, with more probability, Leighton in Bedfordshire; that town and Eglesburgh (which all agree to have been Aylesbury) lying in a direct line under the Chiltern to Bensington and Ensham. One of the most antient British roads is supposed to have passed under the Chiltern. No particular mention of this county appears in history after this period till the reign of Edward the Elder (son to king Alfred) when

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it became frequently the scene of action in the wars between that victorious monarch and the Danes. About the year 907, according to Bromton, or as the Saxon Chronicle, with greater appearance of accuracy, informs us, in 919, this monarch came to Bedford, staid there four weeks, received the submission of all the neighbouring country, and built a fortress on the South side of the river. In 921, the Danes, coming from Huntingdonshire into Bedfordshire, fortified Temesford (now Tempsford) and stationed themselves there. In an excursion from thence they attacked Bedford, but the men of that town made a sally, and put them to flight with great slaughter. The same summer king Edward, collecting a great force, besieged the Danes at Tempsford, took that city, as it is called in the Saxon Chronicle, destroyed their fortress, and put their king to death, together with a great number of his nobles. In 1009 the Danes made an excursion through a part of this county by the Chiltern to Oxford. In 1010, the Danish army burnt Bedford and Tempsford. The next year this county submitted to the dominion of king Ethelred.

'Bedford castle, built by the Beauchamps on the site, it is probable, of king Edward's fortress, was esteemed a garrison of such importance, that, as Camden observes, there was scarcely a storm of civil fury, whilst it stood, that did not burst on it. It was held by the Beauchamps against Stephen, and taken by him in 1138. The same family held this castle against king John, who sent his favourite, Fulk de Brent, to besiege it; and when he had taken it, gave it to him as a reward for his good services. This same Fulk having committed a most violent outrage on Henry Braybroke, one of the King's justices itinerant, whom he imprisoned in open defiance of the law in his castle at Bedford, King Henry III. went in person with his nobles to besiege it. After a siege of two months, it was taken by storm, and the King caused it to be dismantled. It is probable that all the baronial castles in this county, of any consequence, excepting Bedford, had been before demolished when king John in his march to the northward burnt and destroyed, as Matthew Paris informs us, all the castles which lay in his route; and this perhaps is the reason why we read of no remarkable occurrences in this county during the wars between the houses of York and Lancaster.

'During the war between Charles the First and his Parliament, Bedfordshire was one of the first counties that associated against the King, being within that district known by the name of the Eastern associates. A special licence for this association passed the House Nov. 30, 1642. The Earl of Manchester was commander in chief of the Eastern associates: Cromwell commanded the horse under him. Lord Clarendon observes, that Bedfordshire was one of the counties in which the king had not any visible party, nor one fixed quarter. The same author informs us, that in October 1643, the king sent Prince Rupert with a strong party of horse and foot into Bedfordshire: that he took the town of Bedford, which was occupied as a strong quarter by the enemy, and that this expedition was principally designed to countenance Sir Lewis Dyve, whilst he fortified Newport-Pagnell, at which place he hoped to fix a garrison.

Heath says, that it was Sir Lewis Dyve himself who had the command of this expedition; and that, being sent into Bedfordshire with 2000 or 3000 horse, he came first to Ampthill, then to Bedford, which town he entered, and took Sir John Norris, and other parliamentary officers, prisoners. From thence he went to Sir Samuel Luke's house, and served *that* as Sir Lewis Dyve himself was served in the same county by the sequestrators. Soon after this, Col. Montague, with some of the parliamentary troops, entered Bedford by a feint, under a pretence of their being the Royal army, under Sir Lewis Dyve, and took away some money and horses intended for the king's use None of the subsequent transactions of the war appear to have been in any way connected with this county.'

The note to the subjoined extract accounts for the superior manner in which the subject of antient roads is here treated. We quote only a part of this section.

'*Roman Roads and Stations* *.

"This county is crossed by three roads of undoubted antiquity; the Ikening street, the Watling-street, and a considerable Roman road, which came from Hertfordshire to the station near Sandy, and passed from thence to the Ermin-street, at Godmanchester. The first of these differs in some respects from the others: it is by no means so direct in its line as Roman roads generally are; it shews no tendency (where it remains in its primitive state) to pass through Roman towns; nor are such towns found on it at distances suited to travelling; it does not appear to have been ever raised or paved (the peculiar and infallible mark of the roads constructed by the Romans); and in many parts of its progress it divides itself into several branches, but all nearly parallel to its original course. These reasons, added to its name, which is British, give great countenance to the opinion that it was a track-way of the ancient inhabitants, before the conquest of the country by the Romans, in its course from the Iceni (the inhabitants of the eastern counties of England), from whom it took its name. After passing through Cambridgeshire and a part of Hertfordshire, it enters this county on its south westerly borders, and crosses the turnpike road from Luton to Bedford, about the 16th mile-stone; here a branch seems to bear to the right, through Great Bramingham and Houghton, to the British town of Maiden Bower; while the principal road continues on the side of the hills between Great Bramingham and Limberly, over Seagrave marsh, through the present town of Dunstaple, where it crosses the Watling-street, and soon after enters Buckinghamshire. In the whole of its passage through this and the neighbouring counties, it continues on the top

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' * We have been favoured with an account of the Roman roads and stations in Bedfordshire, and other counties, by the Lord Bishop of Clovne; who has taken great pains in the investigation of this branch of antiquarian science; and has visited every part of the island for the purpose of local observation. He has been so obliging as to arrange his materials, and draw up a brief statement of the result of his inquiries in each county for the use of this work.'

or sides of the Chalk hills, and is known to every inhabitant by the name of the Ikeneld or Ikening-street.

" A second great military way passes through Bedfordshire, under the name of the Watling street; this also I have no doubt was another British track way, traversing the island from the Kentish coast to the country of the Guetheli; and it is a curious circumstance, that an ancient track-way, under the very same name, tends from the eastern extremity of Scotland to the same country These Guetheli were the remains of the old Celtic inhabitants of England, who had been driven, by powerful and successive invaders, to the extremity of Wales, and to the opposite shores of Ireland; and the communication with their country must have been of the utmost importance in those early times, as providing a passage for cattle and other articles of trade from the extreme coasts of the west to the great marts for foreign merchants in the eastern ports of Britain. Thus the Watling-street, (Via Guethelinga, as Richard of Cirencester expressly calls it) would be the road of the Guetheli, as the Ikening-street was the road of the Iceni Nor let such persons as have not much directed their minds to these studies, be startled at the idea of British ways. As the Britons, even in Cæsar's time, made use of chariots, it is not very probable that they could have been without some sort of roads, especially as their country abounded with morasses and forests. Now, as the Romans would of course adopt such parts of these roads as suited their own convenience, and as they carried on a trade of the same nature with this people, they made use of the whole of the road, from the coast of Kent to Wroxeter, with little variation. It is carried through well known Roman towns at regular distances, bears steadily and directly to its point, and wherever it is deserted by the modern turnpike road, (as between Weedon, in Northamptonshire, and Wall, in Staffordshire,) shews still a very elevated crest; the original pavement is also found in many places, though sometimes, where it has passed over a mossy soil, such pavement is beneath the present surface; it enters this county at the 33d mile-stone, in its way from St. Alban's to Stony Stratford, keeping nearly in the track of the modern Irish road, and is not to be distinguished from it; with this road also it leaves the county a little beyond the 42d mile stone, having passed through one itinerary station on it, which is generally agreed to have been at Dunstaple. Roman coins have been found near this town; its present streets are at right angles with each other, and coincide with the four points of the compass, corroborating proofs of its having been the work of that people. The name of *Forum Dianæ*, given to it by Richard, shews it to have been a considerable mart of trade, for which its situation, at the intersection of the Ikening and Watling-streets, was particularly convenient; and it is indeed not improbable, that the site was fixed upon by the Romans for their new town on this very account, in preference to that of the neighbouring British town at Maiden Bower."

Students and admirers of Church Architecture will meet in this work with many particulars which will interest and gratify

them. The Counties here illustrated furnish various examples of the Saxon (or early Norman), and of the antient and latter Gothic styles.

As brief specimens of the historical matter which occurs under the head of *Parochial Topography*, we insert these passages;

'Battlesden, in the hundred of Manshead and deanery of Dunstaple, is a small village about three miles from Woburn, between the two great roads. In the 13th and 14th centuries the manor was in the family of Firmband or Fremband, who twice represented the county in parliament in the reign of Edward III. It was afterwards in the Chetwodes. About the reign of Queen Elizabeth it became the property of the Duncombes, by the marriage of William Duncombe, Esq. with Ellen, daughter and heir of William Saunders, Esq. of Portsgrave.

'It was to one of this family, Sir Saunders Duncombe, a gentleman pensioner to king James and Charles I. that we are indebted for the accommodation of sedans or close chairs; the use of which was first introduced by him in this country in the year 1634, when he procured a patent, which vested in him and his heirs the sole right of carrying persons "up and down in them" for a certain term. It is probable that Sir Saunders, who was a great traveller, had seen them at Sedan, where Dr. Johnson supposes that they were first made. It is remarkable, that Capt. Bayley first introduced the use of hackney coaches in London the same year.

'In 1706, the manor of Battlesden was purchased by Allen Bathurst, Esq. a distinguished political character during the reigns of queen Anne and George I.; by the former of whom he was in 1711 created Baron Bathurst of Battlesden, which continued for some years to be the country-seat of that nobleman, and the occasional resort of the celebrated constellation of wits, of whom he was the patron and the friend. In 1724, Lord Bathurst sold Battlesden to Sir Gregory Page, great uncle of the present proprietor, Sir Gregory Page Turner, Bart. In the church are monuments of the Duncombe family from 1603 to 1688. Sir Gregory Page Turner is patron of the rectory.'—

'Eyworth, in the hundred of Biggleswade and deanery of Shefford, lies on the borders of Cambridgeshire, about three miles from Potton and five from Biggleswade. The manor belonged, at an early period, to the Leybourns. It was afterwards in the families of Charlton and Francis. In the reign of queen Elizabeth, Eyworth was the property and seat of Sir Edmund Anderson, Lord Chief Justice of the Common Pleas; a man of considerable eminence in his profession, and one of the judges who sat at the trial of Mary queen of Scots. His great grandson Stephen was created a baronet in 1664; their posterity continued at Eyworth till the death of Sir Stephen Anderson, Bart. in 1773, when the title became extinct. The manor is now the property of the Right Hon. Lord Yarborough, whose family name was Anderson, being lineally descended from Stephen Anderson, a grandson of the chief justice.

'In the church are several monuments of the Andersons. That of the Chief Justice, on the south side of the chancel, has the effigies of

of himself and his lady, under a richly-ornamented arch. He is represented in his robes and cap, with a collar of S. S.; the face bears a strong resemblance to his portrait, as engraved by Faithorne. On the opposite side of the chancel is the monument of Sir Francis Anderson, eldest son of the Chief Justice, whose effigies in gilt armour is represented between those of his two wives, kneeling and fronting the chancel. On the south side of the chancel is the monument of Edmund Anderson, Esq. of Stratton, eldest son of Sir Francis, who died in 1638. It has half length figures of himself and his wife Alice in white marble, their hands jointly holding a heart, on which are inscribed these words—"To God." On the floor is the tomb of Alice, Viscountess Verulam and Baroness St. Alban's, widow of the great Lord Chancellor Bacon, who died in 1656, probably at the house of Mr. Anderson, to whom she was related.

'The great tithes of this parish were appropriated to the priory of St. Helen's in London. They are now the property of Lord Yarborough, who is patron of the vicarage. Edmund Chishull, a learned antiquary and divine, was born in this parish.'

Even slight incidents connected with places are not overlooked in this work, as will appear from the following anecdote:

'John Pocklington, rector of Yielden, was author of a sermon, entitled, "Sunday no Sabbath," preached at the bishop of Lincoln's visitation at Ampthill, in 1635. It gave such offence to the puritans, that, in the year 1640, an order of Parliament was issued, condemning it to be burnt by the hands of the common hangman in London and in the two Universities.'

In the account of the Parish of Enborne, Berks, is the ensuing passage which confirms the ludicrous representation made in the *Spectator*, No. 623.

'There is a remarkable and well-known ancient custom in these manors, that if the widow of a copyholder should marry again, or be guilty of incontinency, she forfeits her free-bench, or life interest, in her late husband's copyhold, which is not recoverable but by her submitting to ride into court upon a black ram repeating some ludicrous lines, which end with a petition for her husband's land, on which the steward of the manor is obliged to reinstate her in the copyhold. At every court, the jury still present this as one of the ancient customs of the manor: the penalty has not been literally enforced within the memory of man, but it is said that a pecuniary commutation has been received in lieu of it, which perhaps may have been more readily accepted, from the difficulty of procuring a proper animal for the purpose. The same singular custom prevailed in the manor of Chaddleworth. Lord Craven is patron of the rectory, which is in the deanery of Newbury.'

An interesting and detailed account is here given of Windsor: but we trust that our loyalty will not be questioned, if, attracted by the Spires of Eton, we stop short of that renowned seat of royalty, and take a stride into the adjoining county:

'Eton,

'Eton, in the hundred of Stoke and deanery of Burnham, is separated from Windsor, in Berkshire, by the river Thames, being 22 miles distant from London: it is chiefly noted for its college, founded by king Henry VI. in the year 1440, for a provost, ten priests, four clerks, six choristers, twenty-five poor grammar-scholars, and twenty five poor men. Henry Sever was the first provost; his successor was William Waynfleet, founder of Magdalen College, in Oxford. This foundation was particularly excepted in the act for the dissolution of colleges and chantries, in the reign of king Edward VI. Its establishment, however, has been somewhat altered, and it consists now of a provost, seven fellows, two school-masters, two conducts, seven clerks, seventy scholars, and ten choristers, besides inferior officers and servants. The annual election of scholars to King's College, in Cambridge, founded by the same monarch, takes place about the end of July, or the beginning of August, when twelve of the head boys are put on the roll to succeed at King's College, as vacancies happen. The average number of vacancies is about nine in two years: at 19 years of age the scholars are superannuated. Eton College sends two scholars to Merton College, in Oxford, where they are denominated post-masters, and has a few exhibitions of 21 guineas each, for its superannuated scholars, towards whose assistance, Mr. Chamberlayne, a late fellow, has bequeathed an estate of 80*l.* *per annum* after the death of his widow. The scholars elected to King's College succeed to fellowships at three years' standing. The independent scholars at Eton, commonly called *Oppidans*, are very numerous, this school having been long ranked among the first public seminaries in this or any other country. The average number of independent scholars, for some years past, has been from 300 to 350: when Dr. Barnard was master, under whom the school was more flourishing perhaps than at any other period, the number at one time exceeded 520. To enumerate all the Etonians who have become eminent in the republic of letters, or have distinguished themselves as lawyers, statesmen, or divines, would be no easy task. From Harwood's *Alumni Etonenses*, which is confined to such scholars as have been on the foundation, may be collected, among others, the names of bishop Fleetwood, bishop Pearson, the learned John Hales, Dr. Stanhope, Sir Robert Walpole, and the late Earl Camden. Among such celebrated characters as have received their education at Eton, but not on the foundation, more immediately occur to notice the names of Outred the mathematician, Boyle the philosopher, Waller the poet, the late Earl of Chatham, Horace Earl of Orford, Gray, West, and the late learned Jacob Bryant. A considerable number of the literary characters of the present day, as well as of those who are highly distinguished in public life, have received their education at this celebrated seminary of learning.

'Before we dismiss the subject of Eton School, the ancient custom of the procession of the scholars *ad montem* may be thought not undeserving of notice. This procession is made every third year on Whit-Tuesday, to a *tumulus* near the Bath road, which has acquired the name of Salt-hill, by which also the neighbouring inns have been long

long known. The chief object of the celebrity is to collect money for *salt*, as the phrase is, from all persons present, and it is exacted even from passengers travelling the road. The scholars who collect the money are called salt-bearers, and are dressed in rich silk habits. Tickets inscribed with some motto, by way of pass-word, are given to such persons as have already paid for *salt*, as a security from any further demands. This ceremony has been frequently honoured with the presence of His Majesty and the royal family, whose liberal contributions, added to those of many of the nobility and others, who have been educated at Eton, and purposely attend the meeting, have so far augmented the collection, that it has been known to amount to more than 800l. The sum so collected is given to the senior scholar who is going off to Cambridge, for his support at the university. It would be in vain perhaps to endeavour to trace the origin of all the circumstances of this singular custom, particularly that of collecting money for *salt*, which has been in use from time immemorial. The procession itself seems to have been coeval with the foundation of the college, and it has been conjectured with much probability, that it was that of the *bairn* or *boy*-bishop. We have been informed, that originally it took place on the 6th of December, the festival of St. Nicholas the patron of children; being the day on which it was customary at Salisbury, and in other places where the ceremony was observed, to elect the *boy*-bishop from among the children belonging to the cathedral In the voluminous collections relating to antiquities bequeathed by Mr. Cole, (who was himself of Eton and King's College,) to the British Museum, is a note, in which it is asserted, that the ceremony of the *bairn*, or *boy*-bishop, was to be observed by charter, and that Geffrey Blythe, bishop of Litchfield, who died in 1530, bequeathed several ornaments to King's College and Eton, for the dress of the *bairn* bishop. From whence the industrious antiquary procured this information, which if correct would end all conjecture on the subject, does not appear. We cannot learn that there are any documents in support of it at King's College or at Eton, and the prerogative court of Canterbury, as well as the registries of the dioceses of London, Chester, and Litchfield, where alone there is any probability of its being registered, have been searched in vain for bishop Blythe's will. Within the memory of persons now living, it was a part of the ceremony at the *montem*, that a boy dressed in a clerical habit, with a wig, should read prayers. The custom of hunting a ram, by the Eton scholars, on Saturday in the election week, supposed to have been an ancient tenure, was abolished by the late provost, Dr. Cooke.

'Eton College consists of two quadrangles. In the first is the school, the chapel, and lodgings for the masters and scholars. The other is occupied by the library, the provost's lodgings, and the apartments of the fellows. The chapel, as far as relates to its external appearance, is a very handsome Gothic structure; the inside has none of that ornamental architecture, so much admired in King's College chapel at Cambridge, to which this has sometimes been compared, but is quite plain, and has been much disfigured by some injudicious alterations, which were made in the beginning of the last

last century, when several of the old monuments were removed, and others concealed behind the wainscot then placed at the east end, by which also was hid a Gothic altarpiece, of stone, enriched with niches. The whole length of the chapel is 175 feet, including the ante-chapel, which is 62 feet in length. Among the eminent persons who lie buried in this chapel, are Richard Lord Grey of Wilton, Henchman to king Henry VIII.; John Longland, bishop of Lincoln, confessor of that monarch; Sir Henry Saville, the learned warden of Merton, and provost of this college, who founded the Savilian professorships of astronomy and geometry at Oxford; Sir Henry Wotton, an eminent ambassador and statesman, who was also provost of Eton; Francis Rowse, a distinguished writer among the puritans, and one of the lords of Cromwell's upper-house, who died provost of Eton in 1658; Dr. Allestree, provost of Eton, (an eminent royalist,) who built the new or upper school, with the cloisters beneath, at the expence of 1500l. and died in 1680; and Nathaniel Ingelo, who died in 1683. The monuments of some of the above-mentioned persons are not now to be seen. Sir Henry Wotton's tomb has the following singular inscription:

"Hic jacet hujus sententiæ primus auctor—
Disputandi pruritus fit ecclesiarum scabies."
"Nomen alias quære."

'The library of Eton College contains a very large and valuable collection of books, having been from time to time enriched by munificent bequests, particularly by the library of Dr. Waddington, bishop of Chester, consisting chiefly of divinity; that of Mr. Mann, master of the charter-house; that of Richard Topham, Esq., formerly keeper of his Majesty's records in the Tower, chiefly remarkable for its fine editions of the Classics; and that of the late Anthony Storer, Esq. containing a great number of early printed and rare books, in various departments of literature, a fine set of Aldus's, and many scarce editions of the Classics, particularly a very rare copy of Macrobius, and a large collection of engraved portraits and other valuable prints, exclusive of what had been bound up at a great expence, with various historical and topographical works, which formed part of his library. Mr. Topham's collection comprises also some very valuable engravings, drawings by the old masters, medals, &c. Mr. Hetherington bequeathed the sum of 500l. to the college, to be expended in books.

'In the provost's lodgings are portraits of Queen Elizabeth, Sir Thomas Smith, a learned statesman, who was provost of the college, Sir Robert Walpole, Provost Stewart, clerk of the closet to king Charles I., Sir Henry Saville, Sir Henry Wotton, Francis Rowse, and several other provosts of the college: here is also a picture, said to be a portrait of Jane Shore.'

It would be easy to add to the number of amusing and interesting quotations: but from those which we have already furnished, the reader will be able to judge of the sort of entertainment with which he may expect to be here regaled.

We

We invite him to partake of it, and have only to wish that it may prove as agreeable to him as it has done to us.—The numerous plates interspersed through this volume materially add to its interest; and we doubt not that they are as generally correct as we know them in some instances to be. The designs are executed by the ingenious pencil of Mr. S. Lysons, and in several of them the etching is also his performance. Jo.

ART. VI. *Annals of Commerce, Manufactures, Fisheries and Navigation,* with Brief Notices of the Arts and Sciences connected with them. Containing the Commercial Transactions of the British Empire and other Countries, from the earliest Accounts to the Meeting of the Union Parliament in January 1801; and comprehending the most valuable Part of the late Mr. Anderson's History of Commerce, viz. from the Year 1492 to the End of the Reign of George II. With a large Appendix, containing Chronological Tables of the Sovereigns of Europe, Tables of the Alterations of Money in England and Scotland, a Chronological Table of the Prices of Corn, &c. and a Commercial and Manufactural Gazetteer of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland: With a General Chronological Index. The antient Part composed from the most authentic Original Historians and Public Records, printed and in Manuscript; and the Modern Part from Materials of unquestionable Authenticity (mostly unpublished) extracted from the Records of Parliament, the Accounts of the Custom-house, the Mint, the Board of Trade, the East India Company, the Bank of England, &c &c. By David Macpherson. 4 Vols. 4to. 8l. 8s. Boards. Nichols, Richardson, Mawman, &c.

IN a speculative and a practical view, commerce is a subject of great interest; and in no country can this be more the case than in our own. We know not any age or nation in which it ever reached the height which it has attained among us: any people among whom its spirit has so much predominated, and its effects have been so completely displayed; nor any period in which it has led to such ascendancy in Britain as at this very time. The work before us is consequently a most appropriate present to our countrymen; and while the subject is highly important, and such as demands particular attention from those for whom it was designed, it will not be found that the execution is destitute of pretensions: for though it be chargeable with faults and defects, it must yet be admitted to be creditable to the judgment, the understanding, and the industry of the writer. In point of plan and arrangement, of method and of style, it is open to criticism: but still it must be allowed greatly to exceed any work of the

the kind which we before possessed in regard to the quantity and the accuracy of the information which it contains. It will worthily occupy a place in the library of the statesman and the scholar, of the private gentleman and the merchant.

The account which Mr. Macpherson himself gives of his performance is so fair and just, that we shall present it to our readers:

'Though commerce is universally known to be the chief source of the prosperity, and also the power, of the British empire, no British work illustrative of its progress ever appeared, till Mr. Anderson published his *Historical and Chronological Deduction of the Origin of Commeree*, wherein he has traced its progress from the creation of the world to the commencement of the reign of his present Majesty; a work which has been quoted with approbation by some of the greatest authors who have written since it appeared.

'Mr. Anderson appears to have bestowed many years of his long life in collecting materials for his work. He consulted a great number of books and pamphlets on commercial and politico commercial subjects: and from them, making some (though perhaps not sufcient) allowance for the partiality of controversial writers, he chiefly drew his materials for the history of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. But for at least half a century preceding the commencement of the present reign he is an original author, relating, from his own knowlege and observation, the commercial transactions of the British empire, with which he had every opportunity of being well acquainted, and in which he was in some degree engaged, having been in the service of the South-sea Company, I believe, above forty years. Hence we find, he is quite at home in the affairs of that company, and particularly in the very extraordinary transactions of the year 1720, his account of which will ever be considered as the standard history of that noted æra of frantic avarice and blind infatuation.

'If he had been equally accurate in the early part of his work, the task of a succeeding writer would have been little more than merely to continue the narrative from his conclusion. But unfortunately he trusted to translators and other modern writers, and these sometimes not very properly chosen. His neglect of the antient historians of Greece and Rome, and of the valuable historians of the middle ages (whom the supercilious ignorance of grammarians calls barbarous), and the want of some public records not attainable in his time, have betrayed him into innumerable errors and omissions. Hence it is necessary to compose the history of the early ages entirely anew: and I have ventured to take upon myself the arduous task of giving an authentic chronological narrative of the progress of commerce, manufactures, fisheries and navigation, from the earliest accounts to the discovery of America in the year 1492.

'In preparing the most valuable part of Mr. Anderson's work for the press, I have preserved all his facts, and the most of his remarks; though some of them are dictated by the narrow-spirited jealousy of commerce, which in his time passed for patriotism.

But

But I have cancelled many repetitions, and the frequent notices of prices, and the diminutions of money, with the attendant calculations of the difference of the expence of living in antient and modern times, an object almost as fallacious as the measurement of a shadow; instead of which, I have given in the Appendix a chronological view of the several diminutions of the money of England and Scotland, and a chronological series of the prices of corn and other necessary articles, both in the perspicuous and comprehensive form of tables, from the inspection of which the reader can obtain a pretty clear idea of the depreciation of money; for that is what we mean, when we talk of the increased price of living: and he will need no commentary to show him the difference between the numerical expenditure of modern times and that of any particular time in *by-past* ages.

'The only other alterations I have made consist in pruning the superfluities of diction; substituting modern words and phrases (as far as I could without entire new composition) for obsolete ones, which Mr. Anderson appears to have used more than any of his contemporaries who have come within my observation; and throwing down to the bottom of the page many sentences and paragraphs of the nature of notes, wherewith his narrative is frequently obstructed.

'The additions made by myself in this portion of the work are presented in the form of notes, with the letter *M* subjoined to each of them.

'From what has been said the reader will perceive that the commercial transactions from the year 1492 to 1760 stand on the authority of Mr. Anderson and those whom he has followed. But for the long period preceding 1492, and also for the short, but very eventful and important, period between 1760 and 1801, I stand solely and entirely responsible.'

The sources from which the author drew his materials, and the assistance to which he was indebted in the latter part of his undertaking, are thus stated:

'The modern part of the work, though containing fewer quotations than the other parts, is still more assuredly authentic, being founded upon the acts and records of parliament, official accounts, and other such unquestionable documents. But in a work, for which no materials can be supplied from the fancy or judgement, nor even from the unaided industry of the author, and in the search for which even money, which commands almost all things, is of no avail, it is proper to inform the reader how I have obtained documents, which have generally been withheld from preceding writers; and in so doing, I at the same time gratify my feelings, by acknowleging my obligations to the great and worthy characters, who have enabled me to render my work more worthy of the approbation and confidence of the public, and perhaps of succeeding ages, than it could otherwise have been.—For the materials extracted from the manuscript records of parliament, I am indebted to the favour of Mr. Addington (now Viscount Sidmouth), who was pleased to say, that he considered my work as an object of public utility, and en-

titled to public support and encouragement; and also to Sir John Mitford (now Lord Redesdale,) who repeated the order for my admission to the office for the journals and papers, where, during my researches, I met with every accommodation and attention from the politeness of Mr Benson and Mr. Whittam. For such of the custom-house accounts as I had not previously obtained, I have to acknowlege the kindness of Mr. Vansittart, the secretary of the Treasury, who, besides some important communications, favoured me with a proper introduction to the custom-house, where I drew from the fountain head the most authentic and important accounts of the commerce, shipping, and commercial revenue, of the British empire: and I am much indebted to the polite attention of Mr. Irving, Mr. Glover, and, indeed, of every other gentleman to whom my numerous inquiries led me to apply.—The accounts of the coinage are derived from those made up for parliament by the proper officers of the Mint, and the latter part from personal inquiry.—Mr. Chalmers, in whose keeping the books and papers of the late Board of Trade are, was so kind as to give me unrestrained access to them for the benefit of this work.—Lord Auckland and Lord Charles Spencer, the postmasters general, were so good as to grant me access to such accounts of their office as might be illustrative of the commerce of the country: and Mr. Church, in whose department those accounts are, most obligingly gave me every information and accommodation.—The directors of the East-India company liberally permitted me to obtain from their offices such articles of information as were proper to be made public in a work entirely devoted to the purpose of conveying commercial information: and Mr. Wissett, the chief clerk to the Committee of warehouses, whose office contains the greatest part of the accounts useful for my work, gave the most obliging attention to my inquiries.—The accounts illustrative of the affairs of the Bank of England are chiefly taken from the official papers prepared for the inspection of parliament.—Much useful matter has been procured from offices in various parts of the British empire by the applications of friends, and by my own correspondence. And much has been obtained from the communications of respectable merchants and other gentlemen unconnected with office, by personal application and by correspondence with various parts of Great Britain and foreign countries. Of the friends who thus contributed their assistance, there are some who do not chuse that their names should be made public, and others whose favours have been acknowleged in notes in the proper places: but the persevering kindness and attention of my worthy friend, Mr. Ellis, late member of parliament for Seaford, and well known in the literary world by his Specimens of the early English poets, which I could not acknowlege upon any *one* occasion, particularly deserve my warm and lasting gratitude. And my acknowlegements are due to my good friends, Messieurs George and William Nicol, booksellers to his Majesty, for procuring me permission to consult some of the books of the royal library, not elsewhere attainable, and for many other kind attentions to me and my work.'

In a note with which we meet in the early part of his account, the author neatly and ably states the grounds from which it has been inferred that the Cassiterides of the Greek authors denoted Cornwall and the islands of Scilly.

In order to enable our readers to appreciate the style and the matter of this work, we select a few passages from those parts which are exclusively the writer's own:

'Carthage was situated on a small peninsula projecting into a bay, which formed two excellent harbours. About equally distant from either end of the Mediterranean, and on that part of the African coast, which advances towards Sicily, Italy, and Greece, it might be said to be placed in the center of all the accessible shores of the then known world; while behind it lay an immense fertile continent, which furnished every thing necessary for the support of the citizens, and a great variety of valuable articles for exportation.'—

'We know few particulars of the ships of the Carthaginians, which, we may, however, be assured, could be nothing inferior to the very best then in the Mediterranean sea; as they were acknowleged, by Polybius [*L.* i. *cc.* 7, 16, 20.] to be possessed of hereditary pre-eminence in nautical science, and the undisputed dominion of the sea. Their ships carried carved figures on their heads or theirsterns, as ships do now, and as probably the ships of other nations did then. According to Aristotle, they were the first who raised their ships of war from three to four rows of oars.

'They appointed two commanders to every ship, the second being to succeed the principal in case of death. This second officer seems answerable to the mates in our merchant ships, or the second captains of the French. The appointment being noted as a singularity of the Carthaginians by Ælian, [*Var. Hist. L.* ix. *c.* 40.] it may be presumed, that other nations had no such establishment for securing a succession of command, and, indeed, there is no such second officer mentioned in that part of the Rhodian law (even when assumed in later times into the Roman code) which assigns the share, or pay, of each man on board a ship, the pilot being therein rated next after the commander.

'The Carthaginians were well acquainted with the advantages of constructing harbours, or wet docks, completely sheltered from the violence and ravages of the sea, by digging them entirely out of the main-land, and securing them by walls, quays or keys for their vessels to lie at when loading and discharging: and they called such harbours by an appellation, which has come down to us under the hellenized name of Kothon or Cothon. [*Strabo, L.* xvii. *p.* 1190, *ed.* 1707—*Servius in Virg. Æn. L.* i. *v.* 431.]

'We are told by the orator Aristides, who lived so late as the second century of the Christian æra, that the Carthaginians had a kind of money made of leather. As they surely were not in want of the precious metals, such leather money must have been a kind of promissory tickets or notes, somewhat of the nature of modern bank notes.

'The Carthaginian territory, which comprehended the north frontier of Africa from the Straits to the border of Cyrenaica, a province of the Macedonian kingdom of Egypt, was remarkably fertile; and we may be sure that the cultivation of it was not neglected. The produce of some parts of this extensive coast was so luxuriant, that the Carthaginians jealously prohibited strangers from landing, lest the sight of so delightful a country should allure them to attempt making settlements on it. Besides furnishing corn and other provisions for the capital city of Carthage, and many other great towns on or near the coast, this rich country supplied corn and other articles in great abundance for exportation. South from it lay the boundless interior country of Africa, which appears to have been better known to the Carthaginians, than it is now to us amidst the blaze of discoveries, of written and of printed information: and there can be little doubt, that they carried on an extensive, and mutually beneficial, trade with the swarthy inhabitants of those vast regions.'

The subsequent passages present us with reflections on certain events of antient times, which have been too much overlooked by historians. The fall of Carthage has just been related.

'Thus, after having for many ages animated and civilized the western parts of the world by the vast extent of her commerce, and by her science, after having eclipsed the most brilliant period in the history of Tyre, her mother country, and after having rivaled even in military prowess the haughty Roman republic, whose sole and unremitting pursuit was the aggrandizement of her dominions by war and conquest, and whom she brought to tremble on the brink of destruction, fell the most illustrious of the republics of antiquity. In her fall commerce received a wound, under which it languished (at least in the western world) during many dark centuries of Roman oppression, and of subsequent ignorance, brought upon the civilized part of the world by the nations, whom Providence in due time raised up to revenge upon Rome the injuries of Carthage, of commerce, and of mankind.

'The Romans, as if determined upon the total abolition of commerce, in this same year also destroyed the mercantile city of Corinth which till now had retained the epithet of *wealthy*, bestowed upon it so many ages before by the father of Grecian poetry. In consequence of its opulence and taste it had long been the repository of the most admired productions of Grecian art. But now the most capital paintings were made tables for the Roman savages to play at dice upon: and so utterly ignorant was the consul Mummius, that, when a picture of Bacchus by Aristides, (said to be the first painter who represented the passions of the soul in his figures) which had been got out of the hands of the soldiers by giving them a more convenient table, was bought by Attalus king of Pergamus at the price of six thousand sestertium, he, astonished at the greatness of the sum, and concluding that the picture must possess some mysterious or magic virtue, refused to let him have it, and sent it to Rome.

He

He gave another specimen of his gross ignorance, when he shipped the most capital statues of the Grecian sculptors, by threatening to make the masters of the vessels, if they lost any of them, find *others* at their own cost. This importation introduced the first rudiments of taste for the fine arts among the Romans, who had hitherto seen nothing superior to the paltry performance of their own imitators of the Etruscan painters and statuaries. [*Polyb. ap. Strabo, L.* viii. *p.* 584.—*Vel. Paterc. L.* i. *c.* 13.--*Plin. Hist. Nat. L.* xxxv. *c.* 4.]

'The few merchants, who were now left alive in the countries liable to be infested by the Romans, fled for refuge from the sword of oppression or extermination to the shelter of superstition. They established themselves at Delos, a small island of the Ægæan sea, which, with every person and thing in it being under the protection of Apollo, was esteemed so sacred, that hitherto it had never been violated either by Greeks or foreigners; and it soon became a noted emporium, where merchants of various nations met in tranquillity, even when their countries were engaged in hostilities. But it is a melancholy consideration, that human creatures formed the principal article of sale, of whom sometimes ten thousand were brought in, or shipped off, in one day. [*Strabo, L.* x. *p.* 744; *L.* xiv. *p.* 985.] The trade of Delos, however, had it been for commodities or manufactures prepared by industry, instead of slaves procured by the desolations of war, was not capable of making amends to the world for that of Corinth, and was a mere nothing if compared to the commerce of Carthage.

'The destruction at the same time of these two mercantile republics made a complete revolution in the affairs of every part of the world, which had any connection with the Mediterranean sea. General industry, plenty, tranquillity, and felicity, no longer blessed the nations; but rapine, want, tumults, and misery everywhere prevailed. The millions of industrious people, who had been set to work, in every country they traded with, by the merchants of Carthage and Corinth, deprived of their accustomed sources of honourable and independent subsistence, were compelled to look for other resources, generally difficult to be found, often not to be found at all. Those who had been bred to the sea, no longer employed in carrying on the beneficial intercourse, which binds distant nations together by the strong ties of friendship and interest, no longer permitted to be the useful servants, were driven by desperation to become the enemies of mankind in the character of pirates. Neither were the Romans themselves exempted from feeling a share of the distress they brought upon the world. The sudden accession of so many hundred thousands of indignant slaves (as in those times to be a prisoner of war was to be a slave) was a matter of most formidable apprehension to the conquerors: for the right of one man to the unrequited services of another, being founded only in power, must of necessity be reversed the moment the slave becomes sensible that the balance of power is in his own hands.'

This part of the work is considerably laboured; many instances of ingenious and able investigation occur in it; the in-

formation which it contains is curious; and while it will instruct the tiro, it will agreeably refresh the recollection of the more intelligent. If the author had mixed with his narrative less of matter foreign to his design, it would have had more of uniformity, and have proved both less bulky and less costly.

We subjoin a few specimens of the author's manner in the modern part of his Annals. He is speaking of the year 1785.

'This year Mr. Cort of Gosport invented a method of converting pig iron into bar iron, which was superior to the Swedish bar iron; an improvement in that most important branch of manufacture, which, if it could be sufficiently extended, would render this country independent of Sweden for the supply of an article so indispensibly necessary, and of which about three fourths of the quantity used in the iron manufactures of this country is imported. But, as a counterpoise to the beneficial effects of this improvement, I am obliged to relate, that, in consequence of the scarcity and high price of fuel, and of the high price of labour, some English proprietors of iron works about this time transferred their capitals from England to Russia, where they erected extensive works for rolling and slitting iron, and for tinning sheet iron. So true is it, that heavy taxes, the principal cause of the high price of labour, will devour themselves by diminishing the number of contributors to them. Nor is that the whole of the evil: foreigners are thereby instructed in the process of manufactures, the superiority of which has made Great Britain the first commercial nation in the world.

'The art of dying the beautiful colour, called Turkey red, upon cotton, was introduced this year in Glasgow by Mr. Charles Mackintosh, by means of an artist from Rouen in France. It was soon brought to such perfection, that cotton pulicate handkerchiefs were dyed with colours equal in beauty and fastness to those of India: and in five or six years thereafter 1,500 looms were employed in that one article. So important a matter is the excellence of colour in manufactures depending upon fancy. Glasgow claims the honour of having, first of any place in Great Britain, acquired the art of dying Turkey red. But it is disputed by Manchester in favour of Messieurs Borells, who got a premium of £2,500 from parliament as the introducers of the art. It is certain, that Mr. Wilson, an eminent dyer of that town, also obtained from the Greek dyers of Smyrna the secret of this curious dye, which he applied chiefly upon velvets and velverets; but I do not find in what year he began to practise it.

'Europe seems to have been inspired at this time with a general spirit of improvement, which may perhaps in some degree have been the effect of the war, which brings people of different nations of those classes, who do not move from home in time of peace, to mix together, whereby they have opportunities of remarking the improvements and advantages, unknown, but attainable, in their own countries.

'In the year 1784 a canal was begun in Spain, which was intended to effect a communication between the Bay of Biscay and the Mediterranean sea through a tract of country much more extensive than

than that intersected by the grand canal of Languedoc, and also on a much grander scale, having nine feet depth of water, with a rise of 3,000 feet, and a length of 420 miles. Two thousand soldiers and as many peasants are employed as labourers upon this great national improvement, which, even in countries the most advanced in civilization and the progress of useful science, might be reckoned a stupendous undertaking. In May 1785 the Bank offered to defray the whole expence of this great work; which, it was supposed, may be finished in about thirty years (reckoning from the commencement of it) provided Spain might enjoy peace so long; a blessing not to be expected in the present system of Europe. When it is perfected, the productions of the various parts of that great, and once flourishing, country, which the impossibility of carriage at present renders useless in many places to the proprietors, will find their proper value; and the access to new markets will rouse the people to industrious exertion.

'In the beginning of the year 1785 the king of Spain established the Royal Philippine company. Their capital was about £1,300,000 sterling. They have the charge of dispatching the ships for South America, other ships, also under their direction, being appointed to carry on the trade between Acapulco (on the west coast of America) and the Philippine islands, the inhabitants of which subscribed a tenth part of the company's capital stock. The king of Spain also, for the further encouragement of trade, opened the ports of the Philippine islands to all nations. In general, Spain may be said to have made considerable efforts to shake off the torpor, which had for some centuries sunk that fine country beneath its due place in the scale of Europe. The empire of superstition began to lose ground; learning and the useful arts were cultivated; and a spirit of liberality and improvement was generally diffused.

'In the opposite extremity of Europe, the Russians were making large strides to emulate, in point of enterprise and improvement, the other nations, who had got the start of them in civilization. The empress ordered an expedition by land for exploring the remote parts of her dominions: and she sent another by sea from the River Anadir to coast along the unknown shores of her own vast empire. A canal was made between the Twertz, a branch of the Wolga, and the Mista, which, by the help of the great lakes, opens a passage of the Neva, and thereby completes an inland navigation of 1,434 miles (chiefly indeed upon rivers and lakes) between the Caspian and the Baltic seas.

'In Denmark a very capital, though a short, canal which was begun in the year 1777, was opened for use in the month of May this year, and made free to all nations, on paying the proper lock dues, for six years. It is only about twenty miles in length, though it goes quite across the peninsula of Yutland, and sea vessels drawing not above ten feet of water may pass through it from the Ocean to the Baltic sea. It cost about £200,000 sterling, and, though the greatest height of the ground is only about twenty-five feet, it is a very grand national work.

'Even in Turkey the light of science began to shine out. A printing press, the vehicle of all knowledge, was established: and a history of the Turkish empire was published. The French Encyclopedie was translated by authority of the government, in order to be printed with all the illustrative plates. And the priests in vain opposed the illumination of the empire, as a dangerous encroachment upon the antient established usages.

'Early in the summer of the year 1785 the East-India company of Ostend and Trieste, a favourite object of the emperor's attention, became bankrupt for twenty millions of French livres; and the principal director absconded. Thus the whole project of becoming great in the East India trade fell to the ground. The German trade on the Danube and the Black sea, the freedom of which had been extorted from the Turk in the day of his distress, was not much more successful than the India trade. It ought not to be forgotten, that the emperor, whose active mind was continually conceiving new plans of improvement, or at least alteration, after having laid such heavy duties on British manufactures as almost amounted to a prohibition, proceeded in December to command a total prohibition of the importation of British manufactures in every part of his dominions.

'A new gold mine was discovered this year in the province of New Andalusia in South America.

'The following account was published this year as the average of the imports of the principal articles from the French islands in the West-Indies.

Sugar,	130,000	casks, valued at	-	90,000,000 livres
Coffee	60,000,000	pounds	-	45,000,000
Indigo	2,000,000	pounds	-	18,000,000
Cocoa	1,500,000	pounds	- -	1,000,000
Cotton	3,000,000	pounds	-	6,000,000
				160,000,000

'The duties on these commodities, including those paid on the sugar refined in France, amounted to 18,323,500 livres. And the ships employed in carrying them home to France are estimated at 600, and to average 300 turns burthen, and the seamen at 15,000.

'About the end of this year there was a new coinage of louis d'or in France to the value of twenty-seven millions sterling. The standard of the gold in the new money was 21 $^{2}\frac{1}{2}$ carats: and the proportion of silver to gold was fixed at fifteen for one.

'The duty on coaches in Great Britain amounted this year to £163,988; a proof of the prosperity, as well as of the luxury, of the country.'

From the attention which South America has lately excited, it may be acceptable to quote the summary of the unfortunate De la Pérouse's reflections on that country, and other distant European dependencies;

'When Mr. De la Perouse was at Chili, he remarked the wonderful abundance of corn, vines, flocks, and herds; the latter in particular,

cular, which are commonly killed merely for the sake of the tallow and hides, there being no sufficient number of consumers for the flesh. But though the produce of that country, if duly cultivated and encouraged, would, he says, be sufficient to maintain the half of Europe, and its wool would supply all the manufactures of France and England, the blessings of nature are counteracted by the errors of government; the people are poor in the midst of plenty; and the whole commerce of the place is conducted by four or five small vessels, which arrive once a-year from Lima.

'His observations at Manilla are nearly similar. The fruits of the earth are abundant: but trade is so fettered by impositions and restrictions, that what is *over serving* the wants of the cultivators is almost of no value. Sugar has been sold at less than a penny a pound, and rice has been left on the ground uncut. The people are not permitted to raise tobacco, of which they are distractedly fond, but are compelled by an army of revenue officers and a military force to buy it from the government at the enormous price of half a dollar a pound. With a profusion of the richest tropical productions, and ten gatherings of silk in the year, they are miserable, and consequently discontented. And this most delightful country, capable from its situation and its fertility of becoming one of the most important settlements in the world under a wise and moderate government, is of no advantage to Spain; and, to use Perouse's own words, 'the most charming country in the universe is certainly the 'last, which a lover of liberty would chuse for his residence.' The Philippine company, lately established with the most oppressive exclusions and prejudices, have engrossed the trade with America, and are at the same time obliged to buy the manufactures of India and Europe in the port of Manilla, where *pretended* Moorish, Armenian, and Portuguese vessels from Goa import only English goods.

'He thinks that Macao in China, which nominally belongs to the Portuguese, if it were made a free port, and were under a government of proper energy, might be one of the most flourishing towns in Asia.

'Perouse made it an invariable rule to give every island or country in his charts its proper indigenous name, if he could obtain it; if not, he retained the name given by the first European discoverers, giving new names only to such places as, he had reason to believe, were first discovered by himself. Indeed, he was so far from arrogating to himself the honours due to other distinguished navigators, that he was ever ready to give them all due praise, and in particular embraced every opportunity to express the greatest respect for the memory of the immortal Cook, whom he called *the greatest of navigators*, and of whom he was a most worthy follower.

'This enlightened navigator, all his philosophical associates, and the crews of both ships, were, most probably, swallowed up in the ocean, for nothing was ever heard of them after their departure from Botany bay on the 11th of March 1788. Had they been spared to return to Europe, the world would have been greatly enriched by the stores collected in almost every branch of science by so many men, each of whom was eminently qualified to execute the

task he had taken upon himself. What we possess of the fruits of their labour and research was fortunately sent home, as they found opportunities, and chiefly from Kamtschatka.'

The reflections made by Mr. Macpherson on the facts and transactions which he relates are those of a humane and enlightened mind, which comprehends the true principles of commerce, and which cherishes just views of the manner in which it ought to be treated. The doctrines of the work are in general not less sound than its statements are correct; and the author is intitled to the acknowlegements of the British public, as having judiciously and successfully treated a subject intimately connected with its vital interests. **Jo.**

ART. VII. *The Book of Job:* metrically arranged according to the Masora, and newly translated into English. With Notes critical and explanatory: accompanied on the opposite Page by the authorized English Version. By the Right Rev. Joseph Stock, D. D. Bishop of Killalla, and M.R.I.A.* 4to. pp. 246. 1l. 1s. Boards. Wilkie and Co.

IT is remarked by Bishop Newton, in the memoir of himself prefixed to the quarto edition of his Works, that he experienced the most effectual relief from the pressure of severe afflictions by plunging himself into deep study. In like manner, we learn that Bishop Stock not only had recourse to this absorbant of the mind, at a moment when his heart was pierced with sorrow by the sufferings and approaching dissolution of a beloved wife, but that he was fortunately directed to the study of that book which is regarded as the *Bread of Mourners*, and is peculiarly designed to excite patience and a dutiful resignation to the decrees of Providence. Thus to occupy the intervals of time not immediately devoted to the attentions of a sick chamber was in character with the good and learned prelate; and it is a proof of his industry and self government, in regularly prosecuting this new translation of the book of Job, during the six weeks in which the late Mrs. Stock lay on her death bed, that he was able to trace the last line of it 'while they were carrying her to her grave.'

We must, however, remark that the melancholy circumstances, under which this work was begun and executed, afford no plea for a hasty publication. The Bishop promises, indeed, to 'lay this good book to his heart and be still:' but he has been more alert in presenting us with the fruit of his

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* For Bishop Stock's translation of Isaiah, see Rev. Vol. xlix. N. S. p. 253.

melancholy

melancholy hours, than we should have recommended if he had done us the honour of asking our opinion. Had he in this case exercised MORE *patience*, he would have acquired *more praise*; for, had he kept his MS. till he had tranquillized his mind by a recipe even superior to that of the study of the book of Job, viz. by taking to himself another wife *, he would probably have furnished a volume more reputable to his own fame, and more satisfactory to the biblical scholar. If Thuanus be regarded as a slow versifier, who consumed two years on a Latin translation of this book, Dr. Stock on the other hand may be charged with excessive rapidity, who executed a work like that now before us in the short space of six weeks.

The Book of Job is certainly a most curious portion of the Sacred Volume; and in a new translation, with a critical commentary subjoined, we may fairly expect to find the difficult questions respecting this antient poem fully and ably discussed. Some very material points remain to be settled, since the learned are not agreed as to its author, its character, its chronology, nor its geography. While one set of expositors ascribe to it the highest antiquity, supposing it to be anterior to the Mosaic dispensation, and to have been written in Idumæa by Job himself, or by Elihu, or by Moses, or even by Jethro, Moses's father-in-law; others contend for placing its composition subsequent to the Babylonish captivity, and attribute it to Ezra, or to some writer about his time.

On the nature of the poem, a long controversy has been maintained. Some strenuously assert that it includes a true history, while others can only regard it as a species of dramatic composition intended to inculcate a particular moral or doctrine. Peters laboured very hard to support the former hypothesis: but the latter, which is that of Warburton, is abundantly more tenable. The existence of Job is not disputed; yet, when the nature of the very dialogue is considered, together with the many circumstances, noticed by Le Clerc, which are introduced evidently for the purpose of dramatic effect, and which are scarcely to be reconciled with true history, we are irresistibly led to regard the speeches and machinery as mere creations, and the whole as an allegorical poem. Against the opinion of it's being a moral dialogue, composed in order to console the Jewish people under the pressure of the Babylonish captivity, it has been objected that, if this were the case, it is very singular that it should contain no reference to the antecedent

* A Recipe which, we understand, the Bishop has in fact administered to himself.

history

history of the Jews, or to the ceremonial law. Even supposing this to be a fact, it would not weaken the hypothesis, but only evince the ingenuity of the writer; who, laying his scene in the patriarchal age, and in the land of Uz, has nicely preserved the costume, and not blended the manners of different periods. It is contended, however, that, though the writer has not introduced any direct mention of circumstances which would have been inconsistent with his obvious design, allusions to events recorded in the Mosaic history will be detected by the attentive reader. Bishop Warburton, in his *Divine Legation*, mentions several passages which indicate the age of the writer to be far posterior to that of the hero of the poem. He considers *the brooks of honey and butter*, in Job. xx. 17, as allusive to the description of the Holy Land mentioned in Exodus, iii. 8, &c. as a land flowing with milk and honey. The passage in chap. ix. 7, "*He commandeth the sun and it riseth not, and sealeth up the stars,*" is supposed to refer to the Egyptian darkness, and to the stopping of the sun's course; and the declaration, chap. xxvi. 12, "*He divideth the sea by his power, and by his understanding he smiteth through the proud,*" to the destruction of Pharaoh and his host in the Red Sea. If these quotations were accurately rendered, the evidence on this point would not be deficient: but if in the last passage we keep close to the sense of the original, and read, "He *agitates* the sea by his power," all allusions to the history of Pharoah vanish. The Bishop of Killalla, who is no advocate for the high antiquity of the Book of Job, is of opinion that, on a close examination, certain marks of time present themselves; and in his preface he points out passages to this effect, 'which (he says) appear to have escaped the diligence of all preceding critics:'

'Allusions to events recorded in the five books of Moses are to be found in this poem, ch. xx. 20. compared with Num. xi. 33, 34; ch. xxvi. 5, compared with Gen. vi. 4. 7. 11; ch. xxxiv. 20, compared with Exod. xii. 29; c. xxxi. 33, compared with Gen. iii. 8. 12; and I shall hardly be expected to prove, that the author of the poem derived his knowledge of those events from a history of so much notoriety as that of Moses, rather than from oral, or any other tradition. Facts are not usually referred to, before the history recording them has had time to obtain currency. The inference is clear: the writer of Job was junior to the Jewish legislator, and junior, it is likely, by some time.

'A similar mode of reasoning, upon comparison of ch. xxxiii 23, with 2 Sam. xxiv. 16; 1 Chron. xxi. 15; will, if I mistake not greatly, bring down the date of our poem below the time of King David.

'Lastly, ch. xii. 17, to the end, seems to point to the circumstances preceding and attending the Babylonish captivity; and ch. xxxvi, 8—12, has an appearance of alluding to the various fortunes of Jehoiachin

hoiachin king of Judah, 2 Kings xxiv. 12; xxv. 27. Notes of time these, which, though not so manifest as the fore-mentioned, may deserve attention; since they add strength to the sentiment of those learned men, who have been inclined to give the honour of this celebrated composition to Ezra.'

We shall consider this extract, first, specifically, with regard to the precise remarks which it contains; and, secondly, in its general application, admitting those statements.

If the reader turns to the first of the passages here mentioned, viz. to Job xx. 20. he will discover in the common translation no allusion to any historical circumstance: but this new rendering, if it be admitted, has a palpable reference to a singular event in the Jewish annals. Dr. Stock thus translates the passage: 'Because he acknowledged not the *quail* in his stomach, in the midst of his delight he shall not escape;' and he subjoins the following note. 'Here I apprehend, is a fresh example of the known usage of Hebrew poets, in adorning their compositions by allusions to facts in the history of their own people. It has escaped all the interpreters; and it is the more important, because it fixes the date of this poem so far, as to prove its having been composed subsequently to the transgression of Israel at Kibroth hataavah, recorded in Num. xi. 33, 34. "Because the wicked acknowleged not *the quail*, that is, the meat with which God had filled his stomach, but like the ungrateful Israelites, *crammed and blasphemed his feeder*, (as Milton finely expresseth it) he shall experience the same punishment with them, and be cut off כהמודו *in the midst of his enjoyment*, as Moses tells us the people were, המתאוים, *who lusted.*"

It is somewhat in favour of this remark, that the same word, which in Numbers xi. 32, is translated *quails* (שלוים) occurs in this passage in the book of Job: but it must also be observed that the word generally signifies *quietness*, and might have been applied to this bird, as Parkhurst intimates, from his habit of living in *ease* and *plenty* among the corn. It does not appear that any version justifies this conjecture of the Bishop of K.: and no proof is given that the expression of "*not acknowleging the quail*" was proverbial among the Jews.

The second passage ch. xxvi. 5. is made to answer the purpose for which it is produced, by the assistance of a new translation, which stands thus: '*The mighty dead are pierced through; the waters from beneath, and their inhabitants*;' and at the bottom of the page this note is added:—'*The mighty dead*] What follows to the end of this chapter, I conceive to be a sample, ironically exhibited by Job, of the harangues on the power and greatness of God, which he supposeth his friends to have taken

taken out of the mouths of other men, to deck their speeches with borrowed lustre. Only, in descanting on the same subject, he shews how much he himself can go beyond them in eloquence and sublimity. רפאים, I agree with Scott, are *the giants* and wicked inhabitants of the old world, who perished in the flood, produced by breaking up *the waters from beneath*, or the fountains of the great deep, as Moses calls them, Genesis vii. 11.'—The LXX have γιγαντες in this place; yet it may be doubted whether we have here any allusion to Gen. vii. 11, or to Gen. vi. 4. 7. 11.

To the third passage, chap. xxxiv. 20, compared with Exodus xii. 29, this note is affixed.—'*In a moment they die.*] The sudden death here described, its happening *at midnight*, the trepidation of the people, the removal of the *strong ones* to the other world *by an invisible hand*, what are all these but the circumstances, recorded by Moses in Exodus xii. 29, of the destruction of the first born of the Egyptians? Pharaoh likewise is the king, to whom God is said just before to have given the title of Belial. We have here of course another proof, that the writer of this poem was posterior in time to Moses.' We cannot say that this passage actually *proves* that the poem was written posterior to the time of Moses: but it affords such evidence in favour of the supposition, that we are surprised that it should not have been before quoted.

Chap. xxxi. 33, "*If I covered with Adam my transgression*," will not be regarded as of any weight, since the tradition respecting our first parents might have existed in the East previously to the writings of Moses.

Dr. Stock speaks of chap. xxxiii. 23. which he translates '*Let there be over him an angel*,' as

'A remarkable passage, well worthy of the attention of critics, who wish to ascertain the much-disputed point, *the date* of the poem before us. I conceive it to be clearly an allusion to the fact recorded in 2 Sam. xxiv. 16, 1 Chron. xxi. 15; that of the destroying angel, seen by David in the act of inflicting a plague upon Jerusalem, and commanded to stay his hand, in consequence of the atonement which the interceding angel ordered king David, by the prophet Gad, to offer unto God upon an altar in the threshing floor of Araunah the Jebusite, 1 Chron. xxi. 18. The several circumstances agree together exactly. We have here the *angel interceding*, (a principal angel too, *one in a thousand*, most probably the Jehovah-angel of the Jewish people, so often hinted at in Scripture) who commanded Gad to tell David (ישרון) what was *fit to be done* upon the occasion; the charge to the destroyer to stay his hand; and lastly, *the atonement* at the threshing floor, followed by a complete removal of the pestilence, and by a return of the people to the favour of God, called צדקתו, *their justification*, verse 26.'

Though in the preface we are in the last place referred to chap. xxxiv. 8—12. as evidence of the date of the poem not being prior to the Babylonish captivity, the author seems to abandon this ground in his note on the text; in which we read that 'the reference is too uncertain to make it a note of time.'

We have thus exhibited, at length, the Bishop of Killalla's new discoveries for ascertaining the date of the book of Job. Might not chap. xxi. 19. however, have been also quoted as a direct reference to the doctrine of the Jewish Law, of God's visiting the sins of the fathers on the children?—These discoveries amount to a probability, but they are far from being absolutely decisive; and it is much to the credit of the author of this poem, supposing him to have flourished under the ceremonial law of Moses, that in constructing a kind of drama, the scene of which is laid in the patriarchal age, and the characters of which discuss the doctrine of Providence and the duty of religious submission, he has employed no other arguments than those of pure Theism, and falls into no palpable anachronisms.

We come now to the general application of the passage which we have quoted from Dr. Stock's preface. Admitting the facts there stated, it seems almost necessarily to follow that the Job of the poem is an allegorical personage, representing the Jewish people, who were then under the severe chastisement of Divine Providence; and then Job's three friends may be intended to represent Sanballad, Tobiah, and Geshem: which latter supposition is strengthened by the epithets affixed in the Septuagint version to the names of Eliphaz, Bildad, and Zophar, two of them being called *kings*, and one *tyrant* (Ελιφαζ βασιλευς, Βιλδαδ τυραννος, Σωφὰρ βασιλευς). Instead of endeavouring to elucidate this matter and explain the singular machinery of this beautiful poem, Bishop Stock contents himself with the easy task of giving an analysis of the reasonings in the book of Job; a task which might have been executed by a scholar of inferior rank. We had reason to expect in a work which professes to be 'critical and explanatory,' an ample disquisition of all the knotty points in debate relative to this poem; among which we may notice the introduction of Satan, or διαβολος, as he is called by the LXX, at the beginning, and Jehovah speaking out of the whirlwind at the conclusion: but all these matters are passed over, and the Analysis tamely begins thus: 'In chap. ii. 10, we find no cause of blame in Job.' We thank the R.R. commentator for this information: but we believe that every *biblical* old woman knew it before.

Respecting the *Geography* of this book, it merits the notice of the critic that its author, whoever he was, had a more intimate

timate knowlege of the natural history and local circumstances of Egypt, than of the region to which the land of Uz is generally assigned; and this circumstance is an internal evidence that Job himself was not the writer of the poem. The crocodile was not an animal with which that patriarch was familiar.

It is observed by this learned prelate that the poetical book of Job appeared to him 'to want illustration;' and we consequently hoped that his labours would supply this *desideratum*, and would have extended themselves beyond the object of 'setting the argument in a clearer light than our established version has imparted to it.'—'The story (as he farther remarks) is interesting, the train of arguments well managed, the moral beautiful, and of general application.' We required not, however, a new translation in order to convince us of this position; and though in no part of the sacred volume more deviations from general correctness are to be found than in the book of Job, the great doctrine which it purposes to inculcate is prominent, in spite of all the errors of our common version. The moral effect of the whole will doubtless be improved in proportion as the version is brought nearer to the original; and to this end it would have been desirable to have collated with the Hebrew text the various readings of the Septuagint, and other antient versions, which, with all their inaccuracies, may help, under the auspices of judicious criticism, to restore the original text, and may afford no scanty aid in the interpretation of difficult passages: but we are aware that such a task could not be executed in six weeks.

At Dr. Stock's sins of omission, however, we look "with countenances more in sorrow than in anger;" and though we cannot, in our judgment, acquit him of some sins of *commission* also, we shall not attempt to aggravate the detection of them by any harsh strictures.

Job, chap. i. 5. the aukward expression of "the days of their feasting *were gone about*," is preserved in this new translation; though the συνέλεσθησαν of the LXX, *were finished*, appears to us preferable.

Ver. 10. 'His possessions *burst out in the land*,' is scarcely English, and certainly not superior to the O. V., "his substance is increased in the land."

Chap. ii. 3. 'Hast thou *given thine heed* unto my servant Job?'—instead of "Hast thou *considered*," &c.

Ch. iii. 7. For "let that night be solitary," Dr. S. reads 'Let that night be a *flint*,' and refers to Parkhurst, who translates גלמוד *a rock*, adding this comment on the passage: "Let the darkness of it be *concreted* that it may become like a rock or stone

stone of darkness." In chap. xv. 34. however, where the same word occurs, the Bishop introduces an idea not to be reconciled with that of the Lexicographer, nor indeed with the subsequent line.

Ver. 8. For "who are ready to raise up their mourning," we here read, 'Even those who are ready to surprize the *crocodile*.' The μαγα κητος or לויתן of this book is probably the *crocodile*; to the hunting of which animal, by night, an allusion may here be made.

Chap. iv. 10. For "the voice of the fierce lion," is here substituted 'the noise of the *jackal*.' Parkhurst, however, thinks that the word שחל, here rendered *jackal*, means the *black lion*. The term in Judges xv. 4. which Geddes renders, with good reason, jackals instead of *foxes*, is שועל.

Ch. v. 1. "To which of the *saints* wilt thou turn?" is converted into 'And unto which of the *good men* wilt thou look?'; and we are informed in a note 'that מקדשים answers to our law phrase *good men and true*, summoned to compose a jury:' but the Eastern nations had no notion of our juries; and קדש rather applies to the good man in a religious sense, than to the good man in a Court of Law, or on a Commercial Exchange.

Ver. 21. For "thou shalt be hid from the scourge of the tongue" is substituted in this new translation, 'During the nimble motion of the tongue thou shalt be hid.' Dr. S. proposes a new reading in this place, but, we think, without good reason.

Ch. vi. 6. "Is there any taste in *the white of an egg?*" is changed into 'Is there any taste in *the drop of a rock?*' The LXX here read *Is there any relish in vain words?—The drivel of dreams* is Parkhurst's interpretation; and *in saliva vitelli* is Montanus's translation.

Ver. 10. Instead of "I have not concealed the words of *the Holy One*," we have here—'When did I suppress the words of the *Separator?*' What reason has the R. R. translator for the alteration? קדש signifies to *separate*, but in a confined sense. Bythner expressly restricts its meaning, *ab usu communi ad sacrum separavit*. How would Dr. S. reprobate the critic who should propose to translate Ps. lxxxix. 7. *The assembly of the Separators?*

Chap. vii. 4. 'When shall I arise and the dark *have taken its round?*' for "the *night be gone*." Here a MS. reading is adopted: but, if any alteration be necessary, it is only that of adhering to the strict sense of מדד, and translating the passage—"And the darkness be *measured out*."

Ver. 6. The version of this text is

'My

'My days are swifter than a shuttle,
And they are finished *for want of thread.*'

We approve this version, but we see neither occasion nor justification for referring, as in the Bishop's note, to the mythological agency of the Parcæ, if it be meant to intimate an allusion to that system on the part of Job. We do not recollect in Scripture the occurrence of the phrase *thread of life.* The metaphor of the weaver's shuttle is rendered more complete in Bp. S.'s translation than in the common version; and it is thus complete without any reference to the office of the Destinies.

Chap. vii. 9. is evidently altered for the worse. 'So to the lower regions descendeth he that shall not come up;' is inferior to the old version, "So he that goeth down to the grave shall come up no more."

IX. 7. 'Who commanded the sun and it riseth not,
And *behind the stars fixeth his seal.*'

To justify this version, the usual sense of the word בעד, which signifies *behind*, is mentioned. In some places, it is rendered by the LXX εξωθεν, and here it evidently requires to be translated, *on the outside.*

At ver. 9. instead of "Which maketh Arcturus, Orion, and Pleiades, and the chambers of the south," Bishop S. translates,

'Who maketh *the blight*, the *cold*, and the *warmth*,
And the chambers of the south.'

For these substitutions, the authority of Parkhurst is quoted, who is said to have well explained these terms. So he may have done, as far as their original derivation is concerned: but the question is, Are they not proper names? Neither Montanus nor Calasio translates the original words, but both read here *Faciens Has, Chesil, & Chima:* though the latter quotes authority Rabbinical to prove that כימ and כסל *sunt nomina stellarum.* The LXX have in this place Ὁ ποιων Πλειάδα καὶ Ἕσπερον καὶ Ἀρκτῖρον; and though Parkhurst has sufficient reason for terming the version which passes under this title loose and inaccurate, it affords evidence here that the translators regarded these terms as proper names of stars or constellations. In his version of Isaiah, Dr. Stock translates chap. xiii. 10. "And the stars of heaven and the *constellations* thereof;" observing in a note that כסיל must signify *masses of stars.* Job xxxviii. 32. where עיש again occurs, and where the common version reads, "Canst thou guide Arcturus with his sons?" the Bishop translates, 'And *comfort corrosion* over her sons;' calling this a beautiful poetical image. This beauty, however, we do not perceive; and we are inclined to think

think that, after all the critical comments which have been bestowed on *Has*, *Chesil*, and *Chima*, they are proper names of stars, which were supposed to posses certain influences.

Chap. x. 10. 'Hast thou not measured me out as milk,
And *pressed me round* like a cheese?'

קפא is to *coagulate*; so that the common version, "and *curdled* me like cheese," might have been retained. Indeed, we see no reason for the alteration.

Chap. xi. 12. is taken in connection with the verse preceding it, and is thus exhibited:

'That the growing up person may gather sense,
And the wild colt become a man?'

The reader, however, will naturally ask, is this alteration an emendation? We think that it is not.

Ver. 17. Instead of the old version, "And thine age shall be clearer than the noon-day: thou shalt shine forth, thou shalt be as the morning," we are presented with the following:

'And from the noon-tide heats shall *fading* recover,
Weariness as the morning shall become.'

If we translate the LXX, this passage will stand thus: "And thy wish or prayer shall be as Aurora, or the morning, and thy life shall shine as the noon." Dr. S. appears here to have mistaken the word, and to have read חרל for הלך, the latter of which occurs in the text, and is properly rendered *time*. The verb denotes *to creep away by degrees*, the known property of time. We are not satisfied with translating תעפה *Weariness*. Job xxii. 25. תועפות is rendered *fortitudines*; in the Bible, *plenty*; by Dr. S. *in loco*, *glittering*; and in Ps. xcv. 4. it is translated by Montanus *cacumina*, and in the Vulgate *altitudines*.

Chap. xii. 3. 'I am not a *changeling*, compared with you.' Had Parkhurst been followed, no *change* would have been made in this place, nor in chap. xiii. 2. where the same word occurs. נפל is *to be inferior*, as we find it in the Bible. Supposing it, however, to mean here '*an untimely birth*,' as we are told in the note, is this expression synonimous with *changeling*?

Ver. 19. For *princes*, the R.R. translator substitutes *priests*, and adds a note to justify the alteration; observing that, 'among the respectable orders of the state it is not likely that these should be omitted.' Without adverting to the fact that, in Job's time, the Priesthood was not a distinct order, it is sufficient to remark that the parallelism in this place confirms the authorized version. We would read;

'He leadeth *princes* away spoiled
And *stout warriors* he overthroweth.'

In xiii. 21., also, the parallelism helps to ascertain the true reading: but, instead of 'And thine *elbow* let it not scare me,' we should prefer "And thine *arm*," &c.

Chap. xiv. 10. For "Man dieth and *wasteth away*," we have here 'Man dieth and is *laid along*.' The ωχετο of the LXX, or *nudatus* of the Vulgate, seems preferable to Dr. S.'s *laid along*.

Ver. 19. 'Waters may *grind down* stones.' We should retain "Waters *wear* the stones." *Gutta cavat lapidem:* but not by grinding.

Ver. 20. The beautiful description of declining life in the common version, "Thou changest his *countenance* and sendest him away," is absolutely destroyed by the present translation, 'Changing *his appearances* thou dost send him away.' If any alteration were necessary, *features* might have been substituted for *countenance*.

Chap. xv. 10. What thanks are due to the prelate, for presenting us with 'the grayhead and the *chrony*,' instead of "the grayheaded and the *aged?*"

Chap. xvi. 15. 'Sackcloth I have sewed on my *hide*,' is surely not preferable to "I have sewed sackcloth on my *skin*."

Ver. 22. 'For my short number of years is come,
And the way whence I shall not return am I going.'

As Job did not expect to live many days, this new version is a judicious correction of the old.

Chap. xvii. 6. This verse, as it stands in our Bible, is unintelligible, and bespeaks a mistranslation. For "aforetime I was as a *tabret*," we now have, 'Although I was a *wonder* before.' Montanus, puzzled by the word תפת, renders it *ignis Gehennæ:* but Parkhurst, following Scott, approves of *Exemplum*, the word used in the Vulgate.

Chap. xviii. 14. Not only is the expression in this place "the king of terrors" changed into 'king-like do terrors chafe him,' but we are informed in the note, with some concern, that this beautiful phrase, so descriptive of death, has no authority in the Hebrew text. If this learned prelate will look again, we think that he will be of a different opinion.

Chap. xix. 25—27. This celebrated passage, respecting the meaning of which we have seen so much disputation, shall be given entire:

"Still do I know that my vindicator liveth,
And in time to come, over the dust he will rise up;
And after they shall have swathed my skin, *even* this,

Yet

Yet from out of my flesh shall I see God,
Whom I shall see on my side,
And mine eyes shall behold *him*, and not estranged *from me*,
Though my reins were consumed within me."

Since the Bishop of K. has substituted 'vindicator' for "Redeemer," and has made other alterations unfavourable to the notion that this text is an evidence of Job's belief in the doctrine of the Resurrection of the Body, it may be proper to annex the accompanying note, in which he judiciously maintains the hypothesis of Warburton; which, in fact, is in perfect tenor with the whole argument of this book, though Peters has strenuously laboured to prove the contrary:

'Here the celebrated question naturally presents itself, whether Job in this passage is to be understood as speaking of a general resurrection to life eternal, common to himself with all the righteous, or of his own temporal salvation, and return, at some distant period, to happiness in this world. A close attention to the context has led me to be of the latter opinion, and with Heath to join Bishop Warburton against his very learned opponents, Peters, Scott, and Parkhurst. My argument is this. If the passage before us can be explained without recurring to the doctrine of a future resurrection, of which we have no *other* proof that it existed in the time of Job, it *should* be so explained and understood. But the passage needs no recurrence to the doctrine of a future resurrection. Therefore.—Against my assumption it is contended strongly, 'that Job all along despaired of a *temporal* deliverance, and of course he must have meant an eternal.' Answer: not always, as may be shewn from chap. xiv. 12. above. But what if he did so for the most part? Is it not very conceivable, that when urged by his ill natured counsellors to confess a guiltiness of which his conscience acquitted him, he should answer by strong assertions of his belief that God would at length vindicate his innocence to the world by bringing him back from the grave, however desperate at present that hope might appear to be? 'But even after uttering these words, he repeats his belief that he should die, chap. xxx. 23, 24.' Granted: but not his belief that God was unable or unwilling to call him up again from the lower world. And that he did conceive an expectation of returning at some future period to see his own innocence vindicated, and his calumniators punished, may, I think, with reason be concluded from what he says in the subsequent verse 26, where he cautions his friends to fear for themselves, whenever God shall have made himself a judge between him and them.'

By way of a saving clause, this addition is subjoined:

'But though this much disputed text does not appear, in its primary import, to convey the clear notice of a life to come which many expositors have ascribed to it, it does not by any means follow, that a pious Christian may not apply it to the strengthening of his own belief in that grand article of his religion. We know

that many passages of holy writ, besides their first and most obvious meaning, carry a second and a more important one, unknown to the writers themselves, and left by the Spirit that dictated them to be unfolded, in process of time, to such as study them with attention, and desire to profit by them.'

It would have been better, in our opinion, to have said that this beautiful and sublime passage, setting aside its original import, is capable of being adopted by the Christian, to whom "life and immortality are brought to light."

Chap. xx. 7. A various reading, on the authority of one MS. is here proposed, to avoid the phrase in the common version, "like his own dung;" which, as Dr. S. thinks, presents an image not only indelicate, but incongruous. For כגללו he would insert כגילו, and then translate the first member of the verse thus,

'Whilst he tosseth himself about, he shall perish for ever.'

Ch. xxi. 20. 'His eyes should behold his *flagon*,
And of the *pitcher* of the Almighty he should drink.'

To justify this alteration, a various reading is proposed in the first line: but as חמת in the second line is not improperly rendered "*wrath*" in the old version, no necessity exists for having recourse to the sanction of a MS. in order to read כדו *flagon* for בידו.

Chap. xxiv. 19. From the word נזל, rendered in the common version *consume*, Parkhurst (whom Dr. S. professes to follow) derives our English term *guzzle*; and surely the Bible translation, "Drought and heat consume (or drink up) the snow waters," is not amended by 'Drought, yea scorching, and snow-waters ravage him.' Snow-waters, we believe, commit no ravages in Arabia. The comparison between the effect of heat on snow, and that of the grave on the body, is obvious.

In Chap. xxvi. 7. For—"He stretcheth out *the north*," the Bp. of Killalla writes, 'He stretcheh the *cope of heaven*;' observing that צפון is the *dark vault* over our head, being derived from צָפַן *abscondit*: but the LXX read Βορεαν; and had Dr. S. consulted Calasio, he would have found that *Septentrio*, or the North, is called צפון, *quod Soli sit abscondita*.

Chap. xxviii. 8. 'The sons *of the splitter* tread it not,' for "*the lion's whelps*," &c. *Sons of pride* or *elation*, according to the LXX and Vulgate, who have preserved this Hebraism for animals of strength. *Sons of the splitter* is an awkward term; and we do not perceive its accuracy as applied to the lion.

Chap. xxix. 11. 'When the eye saw, *it dressed me out*,' is a new translation which will not be easily understood. We deem

the

the old version, "*it gave witness to me*" more eligible; and that witness or respect is denoted by εξεκλινε of the LXX.

Ch. xxxi. 35. 'There is my bail! Let the Almighty answer me,
And let the party file his bill who hath a suit with me.'

The allusions in this language being obviously too modern for the age of Job, we cannot admit them.

Chap. xxxvi. 13. '*The paltry of sense*,' for *persons of mean understanding*, can scarcely be regarded as correct phraseology.

Chap. xxxvii. 10. is translated, in perfect conformity with the old version,

'By the breath of God frost is given,
And *the breadth of the waters* is straitened:'

to which passage, for the sake of vindicating the philosophy of the book of Job, the following singular note is appended:

'That this is the sense of the passage I have no doubt, as we have seen just now רהב *wide*, and מוצק *narrow*, set in opposition to each other, chap. xxxvi. 16. The question is, whether the position be warranted by natural appearances. Water is *dilated* by frost, say the philosophers, instead of being *contracted* in breadth by it. But the school boy sometimes knows more of nature than the philosopher; for he can bear witness, how much lower and narrower he has found a ditch in frosty weather, which he wanted to leap over, than it used to be at other times. How then comes it, saith the grave philosopher, that water enclosed in a vessel, and frozen, *expands* sometimes to that degree, that it bursts the vessel containing it? I answer, because it is enclosed; for if left in the open air, and unconfined, it would not expand, but contract itself. The bursting of the vessel is owing to the expansion of the air included in the fluid, rather than to the dilation of the fluid itself; and we know to what astonishing effects the expansive power of air is adequate. Heat and cold, from what cause we are ignorant, appear to have a similar power of rarefying the air in contact with fluids, and thereby of making way for the escape out of the fluids of the air contained in their mass; which is the reason why liquors, whether in fusion or freezing, always present the appearance of evaporation. Where the air cannot come at the surface of the fluid, as in the case of water in vacuo, no freezing takes place, because the effect ceases for want of the medium through which the cause operates. Water, on its return to a fluid state, weighs less than it did before freezing, because it has lost so much of its included air. Its transparency likewise is impaired by frost, in consequence of the same loss of air, which gave admission to light by separating the solid particles of the fluid. When evaporation has carried off the included air, these component particles will of course run together, and the fluid, whether after boiling or freezing, will occupy space less than it did before. For the effects of *freezing*, consult Chambers's Dictionary, vol. ii. edit. in 4 vols. The reader, I trust, will pardon an excursion into the province of natural history, which has for its object the elucidation of a text of scripture.'

This 'excursion' appears to us unnecessary and unsatisfactory. If Elihu could say in the preceding verse, '*From the blighting winds cometh the cold*,' (instead of the preferable line in the old version "*Cold cometh out of the North*,") we must doubt the scientific accuracy of his observations. Blighting winds may be cold, and concomitant with cold, but are not the primary cause of cold.

Chap. xxxviii. 25. Though this verse is not marked as having sustained any change, the Bp. has here made a great improvement on the old version, by writing,

> 'Who hath laid out for the flood its channel,
> And a way for the *forked* bolt of thunder:'

זרם being expressive of the *zig-zag* shootings of the electric fluid.

The word *Behemoth*, ch. xl. 15. is not translated: but in a note the description is supposed to answer to the *River horse*. For *Leviathan*, the Bp. reads 'crocodile;' for *unicorn*, 'wild-bull;' and for *grasshopper*, 'locust.'

In this translation, we occasionally stumble against such words as these; *after-comers*; *inroaders*; *causseys*; *upturneth*; *hand-clapping*; *holoed*; *hoise*; *mishap*, &c. which we cannot commend for their elegance.

Dr. Stock conjectures that the speech attributed to God, as issuing out of the whirlwind, originally terminated at chap. xli. 11. and that the remaining twenty-two verses of this chapter were subsequently inserted either by the author, 'who in his *second*, but not *better* thoughts, conceived he might add something valuable to his picture of the crocodile, or by some succeeding genius, impatient to lengthen out by his inventive powers what had justly obtained possession of the public esteem.'

The two concluding verses of the poem, the Bishop also supposes, from the great length assigned to Job's life, to be spurious additions: but, as the æra of Job is patriarchal, we do not subscribe to the reason assigned for this conjecture.

Of the Bishop's *Metrical Arrangement* we do not feel ourselves required to speak very definitively. Sufficient samples of it appear in the quotations already made.

It will now be apparent to our readers, we apprehend, that, while this translation manifests learning and critical sagacity, it betrays also marks of haste, and evidences the necessity of a careful revision; which, we trust, the good Bishop will bestow on it, in his present circumstances of *comfort* and tranquillity. In many of his proposed alterations, he certainly is not fortunate.

Generally

Generally speaking, the notes are few and inconsiderable; and, in fact, Dr. S. intimates in the preface that he soon grew tired of the drudgery necessary for a commentator.

It is the object of a supplemental *Analysis* to exhibit the entire argument of this book. The substance of the concluding chapters, which contain the speeches of Elihu and of Jehovah out of the whirlwind, is thus displayed:

'It cannot escape remark, that much of the thread of reasoning which runs through the discourse of the Almighty, is in substance nearly the same with what had just before been assigned to Elihu. Both the one and the other impose silence upon Job, by reminding him of the ignorance of man, and thence shewing his unfitness to pass sentence on the conduct of God. In what then consists the difference between the two arguers? I think in this. Elihu speaks as a creature, Jehovah as a creator. The first tells Job, that the very treatment, for which he had taxed his Maker with injustice and cruelty, may in the end be found to have been a strong proof of the divine goodness, of the divine love for him, dictated by a desire to correct, to amend, and to replace him in happiness. Jehovah deals with this complaining sufferer in a more summary manner. Imagine a froward child, who should take upon him to call in question the actions of a parent, confessed by all competent judges to be eminent in wisdom and goodness. How would this parent check the petulance of the strippling? "My child, you know nothing as yet of the world in which you are placed: you are absolutely ignorant of what may serve or harm you. Try if you can account for almost any one of the many labours, which people advanced into life are enduring for their own and their families' benefit, and thus erect yourself into a judge upon my proceedings. Have patience; when time shall have brought you to where I am, then, but not till then pronounce."

'This is the important lesson to be learned from the book of Job. Till man arrives at that blessed place, where he *shall know even as he is known*, let him lay his hand on his mouth, and humbly acknowledge his incapacity to judge of the dispensations of the righteous Governor of the world. All will end well at the last with him that loves his God, and trusts in him.'

Respecting the general argument or drift of this sacred poem, we have had less dispute than about other matters connected with its history and mechanism. We lament that this learned prelate did not endeavour to embrace every point of his subject, and did not allow himself more time, in order to render his work a real gratification to the theological student. The melancholy occasion, however, on which it was composed, and the elevated rank of the writer, must forbid the punster from asserting that the *Book of Job*, by Dr. *Stock*, is a *Job-book*, and will not become a *Stock book*.

ART. VIII. *The New Cyclopædia;* or, Universal Dictionary of Arts, Sciences, and Literature: Formed upon a more Enlarged Plan of Arrangement than the Dictionary of Mr. Chambers; comprehending the Various Articles of that Work with Additions and Improvements; Together with the New Subjects of Biography, Geography, and History; and adapted to the present State of Literature and Science. By Abraham Rees, D.D. F.R.S. Editor of the last Edition of Mr. Chambers's Dictionary; with the Assistance of eminent professional Gentlemen. Illustrated with New Plates, including Maps, engraved for the Work by some of the most distinguished Artists. 4to. 6 Vols. in 12 Parts, at 18s. each Part*. Longman and Co. &c. &c.

WHEN we announced this new edition of what may be deemed a national work, in our 40th Vol. N.S. p. 424. we intimated an intention of resuming our notice of it at occasional periods. It has now reached such a degree of progress, and has so well maintained its reputation, generally speaking, that we feel induced again to bring it before the eyes of our readers. So much obvious difficulty, however, attends any attempt to review such a comprehensive publication, and so much greater difficulty opposes the formation of a complete and decisive opinion on its merits, that our critical powers are almost set at defiance. We scarcely know how to proceed with it, otherwise than by considering it from time to time under distinct heads of science; and at present we design to take a view of the first six volumes, in those branches which relate to the department of *Natural History*.

G.2.

The mineralogical portions of these volumes are, for the most part, executed with commendable diligence, and are compiled from the best authorities. *Adamantine Spar, Ætites, Agate, Alum, Alumine, Amber, Ambergris, Antimony, Arsenic, fossil Bones, Brass,* and others too tedious to recount, form instructive and valuable articles. *Alabaster* is sufficiently short and interesting to justify an extract.

'ALABASTER, *albâtre,* Fr. *alabastrites* of Pliny, in *Mineralogy.* Some derive the word from *albus,* because of the whiteness of this stone. Others from αλαβαστρον, which they form from the privat. α, and λαμβανω, *capio, to take;* this stone being too smooth and slippery for the hand to fasten hold of it. Under this name are confounded two minerals, wholly distinct from each other when pure, but which, in some of the varieties, are occasionally mixed together.

'The *compact gypsum* of Kirwan (Alabastrite, *La Meth.*—Albâtre gypseux, *de Lisle.*—Dichter Gypstein, *Werner*) when of a white or yellowish, or greenish colour, semi transparent, and capable of receiving a polish, is known among statuaries by the name of alabaster,

* Eight Vols. in sixteen parts are now completed.

which

which term is also retained as a secondary appellation in most books of mineralogy; and is certainly the alabastrites of Pliny, which is characterised by that author as a stone resembling gypsum. When its colours are disposed in bands or clouds, it is called, in the first case, onyx alabaster, and in the latter, agate alabaster. It not unfrequently contains a sufficient portion of carbonated lime to produce a brisk effervescence with nitrous acid; and hence has originated the confusion of authors, who make the circumstance of effervescence an essential distinctive character between the gypseous and calcareous alabasters. Its specific gravity seldoms exceeds 1.9. Its fracture is compact—splintery, sometimes verging on the fine-grained foliated. In transparency, it is considerably superior to white wax, allowing light to pass readily through it, but not transmitting the forms of objects. By slight calcination it is converted into Paris plaster.

'Gypseous alabaster is very easily worked, but is not susceptible of a polish equal to marble. It is made into vases, columns, tables, and other ornamental articles of furniture; thin slabs of it have even been used in one of the churches of Florence instead of window glass. Its brittleness, however, and want of lustre, have caused it to be almost wholly superseded by more durable materials. Among the ancients, the most esteemed came from Carmania, Upper Egypt, and Syria: of the variety called *onyx*, the boxes for holding perfumes were mostly fabricated; thus, in Horace, we meet with "Nardi parvus onyx"

'The *calcareous alabaster*, or sinter (albâtre calcaire), is a stone of the same family as stalactite, consisting chiefly of carbonat of lime, and exhibiting a considerable variety of colours; such as pure white, yellowish, greenish, reddish, and bluish grey: its fracture is striated or fibrous, the striæ sometimes parallel and sometimes divergent: its hardness is somewhat inferior to that of marble, which nevertheless does not prevent it from receiving a good polish: its specific gravity from 2.4 to 2.8: its transparency is nearly equal to that of white wax: it effervesces with acids and burns to lime. Two sorts of alabaster are distinguished by statuaries, the common and oriental; under the latter of these are ranked the hardest, the finest, and the best coloured pieces; a number of sub-varieties are also produced by the colours being in veins, or dendritic, or in concentric undulating zones. Italy and Spain yield the most beautiful specimens; the inferior kinds are found in Germany and France. It is manufactured, like the gypseous alabaster, into tables, vases, statues, chimney-pieces, &c.

'Many of the hot sulphureous waters rise out of the ground of a turbid wheyish colour, on account of a large quantity of gypsum and chalk, which they hold suspended, and in a state of half solution; as these grow cool and lose their carbonic acid, the earthy particles are for the most part deposited, lining the bottom and sides of the channels in which they flow with a compact alabaster. Advantage has been occasionally taken of this circumstance to obtain very beautiful impressions of bas reliefs, by exposing the moulds to a current of such water, till they have become filled with the earthy deposit. The most remarkable of these springs in Europe, is that which supplies the baths of St. Philip in Tuscany: it is situated on a mountain

mountain near Radicofani, and forms the source of the little river Paglia. The water as it issues forth is very hot, springs out with great impetuosity, has a strong sulphureous odour, and holds in solution a large quantity of calcareous matter. From its very source it flows in deep channels, covered with a thick crust of stalactite, of a dazzling white, especially when the sun shines upon it; and which is harder or softer in proportion to the rapidity of the stream, and the obliquity of its fall. This circumstance suggested to Dr. Vegni the idea of establishing, on this mountain, a manufacture of artificial alabaster. For this purpose, he first collected a number of plaster models, of the best bas-reliefs, in Rome and other places of Italy. These models serve to form the hollow moulds, which are made of sulphur, according to the following process. The plaster model is rubbed over with boiled linseed oil, and surrounded with an edging of plaster, of the same height as the intended thickness of the subsequent bas-relief. Then sulphur, melted with just sufficient heat to make it flow, is poured on the plaster model, and fills it to the height of the edging. The sulphur mould thus made, is placed in a kind of wooden tub, roughly put together, open at top and bottom, and of less diameter below than above. This tub has on the inside a false bottom, made of slips of wood laid cross-wise, in order to detain, for a short time, the water which dashes on them. Just above this, is a row of wooden pegs, fastened to the tub, around its whole inner circumference, on which the sulphur mould is let down, and thus supported. The whole is then placed under the boiling spring, and inclosed with walls, to prevent it from being displaced by the wind. The water, which thus dashes on the moulds, deposits its earth both within and without them, giving the impression in bas-relief within, and disposing itself in an undulated surface on the outside. The hardness of the alabaster depends on the degree of obliquity at which the mould is placed, in order to receive the dashing of the water. The more vertical its position, the harder is the alabaster. However, as the hardest models are not so white as the softer, the water is in some cases caused to make a circuitous course, in order to deposit all its grosser particles before it arrives at the mould. Even the softer ones, however, are as hard as Carrara marble, and surpass it in whiteness. The time required for these productions varies, according to the thickness, from one month to four. When the sulphur mould is sufficiently filled, and the ground of the model has acquired a thickness capable of supporting the figures, the whole is removed from the water; the wooden supports are broken by gentle strokes of the hammer, and the incrustation on the outside of the mould is chipped off by repeated strokes. Then the tub is struck with a smart blow of a hammer, which separates the model from the mould; generally, however, cracking the latter. The brilliancy of the models is completed by brushing them with a stiff hair brush, and rubbing with the palm of the hand.

'The composition of this alabaster is gypsum, mixed with a small proportion of carbonated lime. Dr. de Vegni has, after many attempts, succeeded in giving a fine black, or flesh colour to the figures thus formed, by putting a vessel half full of colouring matter into

into the water, before it arrives at the mould. The colouring may also be varied, by protecting particular parts of the mould, while the water continues charged with colouring matter.

'A spring of the same kind as that just described, and applied to similar purposes, is that of Guancavelica in Peru. The water rises from the ground into a large bason boiling hot, and of a muddy yellowish white colour. At a little distance from the bason, the water becoming cool, deposits calcareous matter in such vast abundance, as to fill large moulds with a compact stone of which some of the houses of the town are constructed. The moulds of statuaries, in like manner, being exposed to the water, are filled with hard confusedly crystallized alabaster, and the bas-reliefs thus produced, by polishing, become semitransparent and very beautiful. The images made use of by the Catholics of Lima, in their religious ceremonies, are said to be all formed in this manner.

'Pliny Nat. Hist.—Hauy, Traité de Minéralogie.—Kirwan's Mineralogy.—Bomare, Dict. d'Hist. Nat.—Journal de Physique, vol. ix.'

We could have desired a more ample explanation of *Augit*, and a short statement of the arguments in support or refutation of its volcanic origin.—*Basalt*, a more important subject, is very imperfectly discussed; and, on turning to *Bitumen*, we were surprized to find its characters and species inconsiderately dispatched in less than a single page.—The history and properties of *Barytes*, as obtained by art, are succinctly noted: but the fossil condition and native appearances of this earth are passed in silence. Its sulphat and carbonat may, no doubt, be reserved for distinct articles, but this should have been denoted by the proper references.—Under *Beryll*, no mention occurs of the *Beryllus* of Pliny and other antient writers, nor of the blue, laminated, Saxon, and schorlaceous Berylls.—*Bismuth* is treated at length, and with considerable ability, but its localities and uses might have been more completely enumerated. Notice might likewise have been taken of the sympathetic ink which is obtained by a solution of this metal in the nitric acid; and of the anatomical injections composed of an alloy of eight parts of Bismuth, five of lead, and three of tin. Some of the beautiful metallic ramifications of the pulmonary vessels, preserved in the German cabinets, have been prepared with this mixture; the animal parts having been decomposed in cold water.—*Asbestos* is referred to *Chemistry*, though it properly belongs to *Mineralogy*.

Ærostation, *Ætna*, *Affinity*, *Alcohol*, *Atmosphere*, and *Aurora Borealis*, furnish much useful and curious information. *Fire-balls*, on the contrary, obtain a very *transient* consideration. A few of the more remarkable appearances of this description might have been particularized with much effect, and their connection with *meteorolites* more distinctly illustrated.

The

The botanical articles are mostly copied or abridged from Miller's Gardener's Dictionary, edited by Professor Martyn, of Cambridge, an extensive and valuable work, which now approaches completion. Of knowlege drawn from such a respectable source, we are little disposed to question the accuracy, or to analyse the details: but, while it, generally, comprizes the technical characters and culture of the vegetable species, it seldom extends to the phænomena of their physiology, or to an adequate enumeration of the benefits which may be derived from them. The diffuseness of some of the descriptions, and the conciseness of others, are equally obnoxious to criticism.—Some excellent observations will be found under *Aloe*, *Amaranth*, *Amaryllis*, *Amygdalus*, *Anemone*, *Annual Plants*, *Arabis*, *Bark*, *Barley*, *Brassica*, *Bud*, &c. &c. *Arum* is by much too superficial, and contains no allusion to the increased temperature of the spadices during the fecundating process.—In the exposition of *Arundo*, the uses of some of the species, particularly of the *arenaria*, should have been more pointedly stated; and the fact of the presence of siliceous earth in the epidermis of most of them should not have been omitted.—*Azarum* is vaguely described, as a separate article, and regularly explained in its proper place under *Asarum*; being, in reality, the *Asarum Europæum*, mis-spelt by the carelessness of some obscure writers.—For an explanation of *Avignon berries*, the reader is improperly referred to *Lycium*: these berries being the fruit of *Rhamnus infectorius*, though those of *Rhamnus alaternus* and *R. saxatilis* are likewise purchased by the dyers, and under the same appellation. Hence the apparently discordant accounts of Duhamel, Miller, and Haller.—Some of the horticultural details, particularly those relative to *Asparagus* and *Carrots*, are highly deserving of an attentive perusal.—*Agaric*, and some of the cryptogamic names, on the other hand, are very imperfectly treated.

Cannabis, which we take at random, will exemplify the manner in which many of the genera are described:

'CANNABIS, (κανναβις Herod. Dioscor. It is not mentioned by Theophrastus.) Linn. gen. 1115. Schreb. 1522. Gært. 463. tab. 75. fig. 1. Tourn. Inst. 535. tab. 309. Juss. 404. Vent. vol. iii. 536. Class and Order, *diœcia pentandria*. Nat. Ord. *Scabridæ*, Linn. *Urticæ*, Juss.

'Gen. Ch. Male. *Cal.* perianth five-cleft; segment oblong, acuminately obtuse, concave. *Cor.* none. *Stam.* filaments five, capillary, very short; anthers oblong, four-cornered. Female. *Cal.* perianth one leafed, oblong, acuminate, opening longitudinally on one side, permanent. *Cor.* none. *Pist.* germ very small; styles two, very long; stigmas acute. *Peric.* the permanent calyx closely covering the seed. *Seed*, nut globular, depressed, two-valved.

'Ess.

'Ess. Ch. Male. Calyx five-cleft; corolla none. Female. Calyx one-leafed, entire, opening on one side; corolla none; styles two; nut two-valved, within the closed calyx.

Sp. 1. C. *sativa*, Linn. Sp. Pl. Mil. fig. tab. 77. Bauh. Hist. i fig. 443. Ger. Emac. 708. fig. 1, 2, Lam. Ill. Pl. 814. Hemp. Chanvre, Fr. "Leaves opposite." *Root* annual. *Stem* from six to eight feet high or more, upright, obscurely quadrangular, a little hairy. *Leaves* petioled, digitate; leaflets five or seven, lanceolate, acuminate, serrated, outer ones the smallest. *Male flowers* in small loose racemes or spikes at the ends of the stem and branches. *Female flowers*, axillary, solitary, very small. Both kinds sometimes occur on the same plant, but always one of them very few in proportion to the other. All the old authors ignorantly call the male flowers female, and vice versa. It is said by Herodotus to be a native of Scythia. According to Linnæus it grows wild in the East Indies. Thunberg says it grows here and there in Japan. Gmelin found it in Tartary, and Father Hennepin among the Illinois, in North America. From long cultivation it is almost naturalized in the south of France, Italy, &c. An oil is extracted from its seeds. The seeds themselves are thought to be good for poultry, and to cause hens to lay a larger quantity of eggs, but should be given to smaller birds with caution, and mingled with other seeds. It has been said, that if bullfinches and goldfinches feed upon them too plentifully, the red and yellow of their plumage is changed to a total blackness. For the propagation, and culture of this plant, the various processes which it undergoes in the hands of the manufacturer, and the uses to which it is applied, see HEMP. 2 C. *indica*, Lam. Encyc. (C. similis exotica, Bauh. pin. 320. C. peregrina, Moris. Hist. iii. p. 433. n. 2. Kalengi Cansjava, Rheed. Mal 10 p. 119. tab. 60. Tsjern Cansjava, Ibid. tab. 61. Dakka or Bangua of the Indians β. With a taller stem. Rumph. Amb v. p. 208. tab. 77. "Leaves alternate." *Stem* nearly cylindrical, smaller, more branched, and harder than that of the preceding species. *Leaves* all constantly alternate; leaflets linear-lanceolate, very sharp-pointed; in the male plants five or seven, in the female ones commonly but three, on a petiole; near the top entirely simple. A native of the East Indies. Its hard stem and thin bark render it incapable of being wrought into filaments and spun like common hemp. It has a strong smell, a little like that of tobacco. The Indians make of its bark and the expressed juice of its leaves and seeds, a liquor which has an intoxicating quality; and if they wish to produce a stronger effect, they either chew or smoke its dried leaves mingled with tobacco. A little nutmeg, cloves, camphor, and opium, mixed with its juice, form the composition which the Indians call *majeh*, and which, according to Clusius, is the same as the malach of the Turks.

'CANNABIS *Spuria*, (Riv. Mon. tab. 32.) See GALEOPSIS VERSICOLOR.

'CANNABIS *Virginiana*, (Bauh. Pin. 320.) foliis simplicibus, (Gron. Virg. 192. 155*.) See ACNIDA CANNABINA.

'CANNABIS *lutea fertilis*, (Alp. Exot. 300. tab. 298. Moris. Hist. tab. 25. fig. 4. lutea cretica et sterilis, Alp. Exot. 296. tab. 295. and 301. tab. 300.) See DATISCA CANNABINA.'

The history and properties of Elastic Gum, or Indian Rubber, are thus related:

'CAOUTCHOUC, *Elastic Gum*, in *Chemistry*. This singular vegetable substance was first brought to Europe from South America, about the beginning of the last century. Nothing however was known concerning its natural history till a memoir was presented in 1736 to the French academy by Condamine, in which it is stated, that there grows in the province of Esmeraldas in Brasil, a tree called by the natives "Hhevé," from the bark of which, when wounded, there flows a milky juice, which by exposure to the air, is converted into caoutchouc. Some time after, the same tree was found in Cayenne by M. Freneau; and it appears from later researches, that this singularly elastic substance is procured from at least two trees natives of South America: of these, the one is called by botanists hævea caoutchouc, and the other, jatropha elastica. The American caoutchouc is usually brought to Europe in the form of globular narrow necked bottles, about a fourth of an inch thick, and capable of holding from half a pint to a quart or more. They are formed upon moulds of unburnt clay, pieces of which are often found adhering to the inside. In its native country it is fabricated by the inhabitants into vessels for containing water and other liquids, and on account of its inflammability, it is used at Cayenne for torches.

'In the Asiatic Researches, is an account by Mr. Howison, surgeon at Pulo Penang, of a substance exhibiting all the properties of caoutchouc, procured from the juice of a climbing plant, the urceola elastica, a native of that small island, and the neighbouring coast of Sumatra. If one of the thicker and older stems of this plant is cut into, a white juice oozes out, of the consistence of cream, and slightly pungent to the taste. By exposure for a short time to the action of the air, or still more expeditiously by the addition of a few drops of acid, a decomposition takes place; the homogeneous thick cream-like juice separates into a thin whitish liquor, resembling whey, and the caoutchouc concretes into a clot or curd, covered superficially with a thin coating of a butyraceous substance. If the juice as soon as secreted is carefully excluded from the air, it may be preserved for some weeks without any material change, but at length the caoutchouc separates from the watery part in the same manner, though not so perfectly as it does by free exposure to the air. The proportion of caoutchouc contained in the juice by the oldest stems, is nearly equal to two thirds of its weight; the juice from the younger trees is much more fluid, and contains a considerably smaller proportion of this substance.

'According to the experiments of Mr. Howison, cloth of all kinds may be made impenetrable to water by impregnating it with the fresh juice of the urceola; and the pieces thus prepared are most effectually and expeditiously joined together by moistening the edges with the entire juice, or even the more watery part, and then bringing them in contact with each other. Boots, gloves, &c. made of this

this impervious cloth are preferable even to those formed of pure caoutchouc, as they are more durable and retain their shape better. If a sufficient quantity of this juice could be obtained, it might no doubt be applied to a vast variety of important purposes.

'The colour of fresh caoutchouc is yellowish white, but by exposure to the air it becomes of a smoak grey. American caoutchouc, in the state in which it is brought to Europe, being formed of a multitude of extremely thin layers, each of which is exposed to the air for some time in order to dry before the next is laid on, is of a yellowish smoak-grey colour throughout, but masses of East Indian caoutchouc being formed more expeditiously, are dark coloured only on the outside; when cut into, they are of a very light brown, which however soon deepens by the action of the air. Caoutchouc is perfectly tasteless, and has little or no smell, except when it is warmed; it then gives out a faint peculiar odour. The elasticity of this substance is very remarkable, and indeed is one of its most characteristic properties. Slips of caoutchouc when softened by immersion for a few minutes in boiling water, may be drawn out to seven or eight times their original length, and will afterwards resume very nearly their former dimensions. During its extension, a very sensible warmth is produced, as may be perceived if the piece is held between the lips; and on the contrary, when it is allowed to contract, a decrease of temperature will immediately take place. By successive extensions and contractions, especially in cold water, its elasticity is much impaired; but if in this state it is immersed for a time in hot water, it reabsorbs the caloric which it had lost, returns to its original size, and recovers its primitive elasticity. At the temperature of about 40° Fah. caoutchouc begins to grow rigid, its colour becomes much lighter, and it is nearly opake, and as the cold increases, it becomes still more stiff and harder. These changes, however, depend merely on temperature, for a piece of hard frozen caoutchouc again resumes its elasticity on being warmed. The fresh cut surfaces of this substance will unite together by simple contact, and by a proper degree of pressure, may be brought so completly in union as to be no more liable to separate in this part than in any other. Its sp. gr. according to Brisson, is 0.933. It undergoes no alteration by the action of the air at the common temperature. When boiled for a long time in water it communicates to this fluid a pecular smell and flavour, and is so far softened by it, that two pieces thus treated, and afterwards strongly pressed, will form a permanent adhesion to each other.

'When heated to a temperature nearly equal to that of melting lead, caoutchouc runs into a black viscid fluid of the consistence of tar, which does not concrete on cooling, neither does it dry by long exposure to the air. When held to a candle it readily takes fire, and burns with a copious white flame, and a large quantity of dark coloured smoak, exhaling at the same time a peculiar, but not unpleasant odour: from its smoak a considerable quantity of very fine lampblack may be collected. In dry distillation it gives out ammonia and carbonated hydrogen.

'Concentrated sulphuric acid, when heated, acts with great energy on caoutchouc, reducing it to a black friable carbonaceous substance,

substance, the acid at the same time being in part decomposed, and sulphureous acid being produced. When treated with nitric acid, azotic gas and carbonic and prussic acid are disengaged, oxalic acid is left in solution, and the residue is converted into a yellow friable mass. By digestion in oxymuriatic acid, the colour of caoutchouc is discharged, it becomes opaque, indurated, and wrinkled, like tanned leather, but appears to undergo no other change. Similar effects are produced, though more slowly, by muriatic acid.

'Ammoniacal gas, according to Dr. Thomson, is absorbed by caoutchouc, and converts it into a soft, glutinous, and inelastic substance. The same able chemist also states, that the caustic fixed alkalies are capable of combining with and dissolving it. Caoutchouc is also soluble with ease at a boiling heat in the expressed vegetable oils, in wax, butter, and animal oil, forming viscid inelastic compounds. Alcohol appears not to have the smallest action on it either cold or hot.

'Rectified oil of turpentine, at the common temperature, acts without difficulty on caoutchouc, first rendering it transparent, and enlarging its bulk considerably, and in the course of a few days, effecting a complete solution. This compound is of the consistence of drying oil, and when spread thin on wood, it forms a varnish which however is a long time in becoming quite dry. When mixed with a solution of wax in boiled linseed oil, it composes an elastic varnish which is used for covering balloons.

'The only menstrua for this substance, from which it can be separated again unaltered, are ether, naphtha, and cajeput oil.

'The solubility of caoutchouc in ether was first discovered by Macquer, a circumstance which from its frequent failure in the hands of other chemists, was very generally called in question, till Cavallo cleared up the difficulty by showing the necessity of employing washed ether for this purpose. If rectified sulphuric ether is shaken in a vial with some pure water, it dissolves about a tenth of its weight of this latter substance, and in this state is capable of effecting a complete and speedy solution of caoutchouc. The solution is of a light brown colour, and, when saturated, is considerably viscid. A drop of it *let fall* into a cup of water immediately extends itself over the whole surface; and the ether being partly absorbed by the water, and partly evaporated, the water is found covered with an extremely thin film of caoutchouc, possessing its elasticity, and all its other characteristic properties. A similar effect takes place when cloth of any kind is soaked in the solution, or any hard surface is smeared over with it; on exposure to the air the ether is rapidly evaporated, and the caoutchouc which it was combined with is left behind. The affinity of this solution for caoutchouc is very great: if the edges of two pieces of caoutchoue are dipped in it and immediately brought in close contact with each other, as soon as the ether is evaporated, they will be found to be perfectly united.

'There are two circumstances which must always prevent the extensive use of the ethereous solution of caoutchouc, admirably qualified as it is in other respects for many useful purposes; these are, first, its expensiveness, and secondly, the extraordinary rapidity with which

which the ether evaporates; thus rendering it impossible to lay an even coating of this varnish on any surface, and clogging up the brushes by which it is applied. In order to form tubes or catheters of this substance, the best method is to cut a bottle of caoutchouc in a long single slip, and soak it for half an hour or an hour in ether: by this means it will become soft and tenacious, and if wound dexterously on a greased mould, bringing the edges in contact with each other at every turn, and giving the whole a moderate and equal pressure by binding it with a tape wound in the same direction as the caoutchouc, a very effectual union will be produced; after a day or two, the tape may be taken off, and the cylinder of caoutchouc may be rendered still more perfect by pouring a little of the etherous solution into a glass tube closed at one end, the diameter of which is a little larger than that of the cylinder of caoutchouc; which being introduced into the tube, will force the solution to the top of the vessel. Let the whole of the apparatus be then placed in boiling water; the ether will be evaporated, and a smooth and uniform coating of newly deposited caoutchouc will remain upon the cylinder.

'Petroleum when rectified by gentle distillation, affords a colourless liquid not to be distinguished from the purest naphtha, and this, according to Fabbroni, has the property of dissolving one seventieth of its weight of caoutchouc, and of depositing it again unaltered by spontaneous evaporation. It does not appear, however, that this menstruum has been much employed.

'The solubility of caoutchouc in cajeput oil was first noticed by Dr. Roxburgh. This is an essential oil procured in India, by distillation, from the leaves of the *Melaleuca Lucadendron*. The solution is very thick and glutinous; and is decomposable by alcohol, this latter uniting with the essential oil and leaving the caoutchouc floating on the liquor in a soft semifluid state. This on being washed with alcohol, and exposed to the air, becomes as firm and elastic as before it was dissolved; while in the intermediate state between fluid and firm, it may be drawn out into long transparent threads, resembling in the polish of their surface, the fibres of the tendons of animals, and so extremely elastic, that when broken, each end immediately returns to its respective mass. Through all these stages the least pressure with the finger and thumb is capable of uniting different portions as completely as if they had never been separated, and that without any clamminess or sticking to the fingers.

'The uses to which caoutchouc has been hitherto applied, are the following. It is chiefly used for rubbing out blacklead pencil marks from paper, whence its vulgar name, Indian rubber: it is of value to the chemist as a material for flexible tubes to gazometers and other apparatus; the surgeon is indebted to it for flexible syringes and catheters; and finally it enters as an essential ingredient into the composition of the best varnish for balloons.

'CAOUTCHOUC *Vine*, in *Botany*, a species of *Urceola*, which see.'

In zoology, the contributions are of very unequal merit; and though the Linnéan nomenclature is generally adopted, many animals are described under their trivial or English

names, while others are ranged under their respective genera. This last mode, as the most regular and methodical, ought to have been uniformly adopted. *Arvensis* includes descriptions of various insects which should have been referred to *Curculio, Cicada, Phalæna,* and *Vespa*; while *Asparagi* (a very unscientific category) presents us with a species of *Chrysomela.*—The white or polar *Bear* is separated from the other *Ursi,* as *Beaver* is from *Castor.*—The genus *Anas* is merely a word of reference, and its species are separately explained under their respective trivial appellations.—The article *Botts* comprizes an ingenious and in some measure an original history of the genus *OEstrus:* but it would have been introduced with more propriety under the latter term.—The *Anatomy of Birds,* which forms a long and masterly essay, is inserted under *Birds,* while, for the migrations of the latter, the reader is referred to *Migration.* Such inconsistencies, in a work in which uniformity of arrangement ought to constitute a primary feature, are the less excuseable as they might have been easily avoided.—In many cases, the descriptions of animal species are so scanty as to be of little practical utility; and they are too seldom accompanied with notices of instincts and habits.

Among the more elaborate zoological articles, we may reckon *Actinia, Alauda, Alca, Aphis, Aranea, Balæna,* and *Bombyx.*—The history of the *Bee,* which we expected to have found under *Apis,* is treated with more regard to minuteness than novelty. In his introductory remarks, the Cyclopædist manifests a disposition to deprive this wonderful insect of every thing that can be construed into a power of reasoning: yet, without wishing to exalt it to the dignity of the 'Lord of the creation,' we cannot easily reduce its conduct to the mere agency of blind undeviating instinct, since it is well known that, on various occasions, its operations are accommodated to particular circumstances. The anatomical details of this article, though very short, are accurate and comprehensive: but the quotations from Latreille and others should have been translated for the benefit of the mere English reader.—Most of the Cancer tribe are dismissed with provoking brevity.

For the present, however, it will be proper to set bounds to our strictures on this department of the publication, and to close them with one or two entertaining citations:

'BASILISCUS, in *Zoology,* a species of LACERTA, which, according to Linnæus, has the tail long and round; dorsal fin radiated; and back of the head crested. This is the basilisk of modern naturalists, and seems to unite the two genera of Lacerta and Draco. The remarks of Dr. Shaw (in the Gen. Zool.) on this extraordinary creature are highly interesting, and ought not to escape attention.

It

It is, according to this writer, particularly distinguished by a long and broad wing-like process or expansion continued along the whole length of the back, and to a very considerable distance on the upper part of the tail, and furnished at certain distances with internal radii analogous to those in the fins of fishes, and still more so those in the wings of the draco volans, or flying lizard. This process is of different elevation in different parts, so as to appear strongly sinuated and indented, and is capable of being either dilated or contracted at the pleasure of the animal. The occiput, or hind part of the head, is elevated into a very conspicuous pointed hood, or hollow crest.

'Notwithstanding its formidable appearance, adds this author, the basilisk is a perfectly harmless animal; and, like many others of the lizard tribe, resides principally among trees, where it feeds on insects, &c. It has long ago been admirably figured in the work of Seba; and as it is an extremely rare species, has sometimes been considered, from the strangeness of its form, as a fictitious representation. There is, however, in the British Museum, a very fine specimen, well preserved in spirits, and which fully confirms the excellency of Seba's figure; from which, in all probability, Linnæus himself (who never saw the animal) took his specific description. The colour of the basilisk is a pale cinereous brown, with some darker variegations towards the upper part of the body. Its length is about a foot and half. The young or small specimens have but a slight appearance either of the dorsal or caudal process, or of the pointed occipital crest. The basilisk is principally found in South America, and sometimes considerably exceeds the length before mentioned, measuring three feet or even more, from the nose to the extremity of the tail It is said to be an animal of great agility, and is capable of swimming occasionally with perfect ease, as well as of springing from tree to tree by the help of its dorsal crest, which it expands in order to support its flight.

'Among the French naturalists, the Iguane is a distinct genus of the oviparous quadrupeds, in which the Linnæan *lacerta basiliscus* is included under the name of basilisk.

'The basilisk of the ancients existed only in the glowing fancy of their poets: they feigned it to be the most malignant of all poisonous serpents; as a creature whose breath empoisoned the very air, and whose baneful glance would alone prove fatal to all other animals. A creature gifted with such extraordinary powers could have no common origin, and therefore it was asserted to be the produce of the egg of a cock brooded upon by a serpent. Galen says its colour is yellowish, and that it has three little elevations on its head, speckled with whitish spots, that have somewhat the appearance of a crown. Ælian, Matthiolus, Pliny, Lucan, and others of the most distinguished ancients, relate many marvellous properties of this creature; but, notwithstanding their authority, the basilisk, as they represent it, is most unquestionably fabulous. It is needless to add to this article any of the fables of Jerome Lobo, although Dr. Johnson has received some of them with an unwarrantable degree of credulity. The learned Prosper Alpinus informs us, on the authority of some relations, which he seems to have credited, that near the lakes contiguous to

the sources of the Nile, there is a number of basilisks, about a palm in length, and the thickness of a middle finger; that they have two large scales which they use as wings, and crests and combs upon their heads, from which they are called basilisci or reguli, that is, crowned, crested, or kingly serpents. And he says, that no person can approach these lakes without being destroyed by these crested snakes. Our traveller, Mr. Bruce, observes, that having examined the lake Gooderoo, those of Court Ohha and Tzana, the only lakes near the sources of the Nile, he never saw one serpent there, crowned or uncrowned; and that he never heard of any: and, therefore, he believes this account as fabulous as that of the Acontia and other animals mentioned by Prosper Alpinus, lib. iv. cap. 4. The basilisk is a species of serpent frequently mentioned in Scripture, though never described farther than that it cannot be charmed so as to do no hurt, nor trained so as to delight in music; which all travellers who have been in Egypt allow is very possible, and frequently seen. (Jerem. viii. 17. Psalm ix. 13.) However, it is the Greek text that calls this serpent basilisk; the Hebrew generally calls its tsepha, which is a species of serpents real and known. Our English translation very improperly renders it cockatrice, a fabulous animal that never did exist. The basilisk of scripture seems to have been a snake, not a viper; as its eggs are mentioned (Isaiah ix 5.): whereas it is known to be the characteristic of the viper to bring forth living young.'

'Carabi. If these insects are closely pursued, they emit a strong, and highly fetid odour, and when caught, immediately eject both from the mouth and vent, a dusky greenish, or in some species a redish liquor of an extremely acrid and caustic nature, the smell of which is similar, but rather more powerful than the odour it sends forth when pursued.'—'One or two species of the winged kind of Carabi, if not more, are able also to terrify their antagonists by making a loud, and frequently repeated snapping noise, which by some has been compared to the explosion of a musquet in miniature. This faculty is more completely exemplified in the little species which the French call *Bombardier*, *Carabus Crepitans* of Linn. Faun. Suec. and of later entomologists. It has been affirmed by some lively writers, "that this insect possesses the extraordinary faculty of discharging from behind, on being pursued or irritated, a bluish fetid, and penetrating vapour, accompanied by a very smart explosion." "And this operation (it is added) the insect has the power of repeating ten, twelve, or even twenty times in succession with equal violence, thus frequently escaping by terrifying its pursuers." (Shaw Zool.) Another historian of this pigmy musqueteer insists that "the smoke emitted at the time of each explosion is so dense as to completely conceal the insect for the space of a few moments from its pursuers, during which interval the wary creature, like an able warrior, may, and does frequently effect its retreat in good order under cover of the smoke occasioned by its own fire."—The recital of this last account excites a smile,' &c.—

A few miscellaneous remarks have also occurred to us in turning over these volumes.

St.

St. Salvator's College, at St. Andrew's, is erroneously said to have *nine* Professors, and the New College *five*; whereas the former has only *eight*, and the latter *three*.

The history of the *Albigenses* is too much condensed, and the account of their tenets is borrowed with too little reserve from the reports of the Inquisition. In stating the cruel progress of the Albigensian crusade, the author mentions that *Biterre* was taken, &c.; and a person unacquainted with the antient history of Languedoc might not here recognize the Latinized form of *Beziers*.—A more ludicrous *pas de clerc* occurs in the following sentence: 'ASPE, a valley of Berne, in Swisserland, between the Pyrénées and the town of Oleron.' *Bearn* is here confounded with Berne; and, as the latter is in Swisserland, the too easy topographer felt no hesitation in shifting his valley to the distance of some hundred miles.

Bat is minutely explained as a base coin, current in some parts of Germany and Swisserland, and is again more generally defined under *Batz*, which is the correct orthography: but the two articles apply to the same object, a circumstance of which the contributor seems to have been ignorant.

In the description of *Beaucaire*, we are told that 'the part of the Rhine is well constructed:' Though we should substitute Rhône for Rhine, the phrase is still incomplete.

The plates are generally well engraved, but we have still to object to the minuteness of the maps.

[*To be occasionally continued.*] **Muir.**

ART. IX. *A Catalogue of the Royal and Noble Authors of England, Scotland, and Ireland;* with Lists of their Works. By the late Horatio Walpole, Earl of Orford. Enlarged and continued to the present Time. By Thomas Park, F.S.A. 5 Vols. 8vo. 7l. 7s. Boards. Scot. 1806.

DOVE, Diavolo! Messer Ludovico, avete pigliato tante coglionerie! was the humorous motto prefixed by Mr. Walpole, afterward Earl of Orford, to the original impression of his Catalogue, which is given with additions in the superb collection of this noble author's works in five volumes quarto, in 1798. If, however, he could amuse himself with the idea of the croud of royal and noble scribblers which he had brought together to figure down his literary dance, what would he have said to the present undertaking of Mr. Park, who has so greatly augmented their number, and made farther displays of their pretensions to the honours of authorship? The first edition of the Cata-

logue of Royal and Noble Authors was printed at Mr. Walpole's private press at Strawberry-hill, 1757, in two vols. small 8vo, for the author's friends; and in the year following, another edition was prepared for the public in London, and sold by Dodsley for 8s *. These notices were originally confined to *England* †, and extended to only *ten* English princes and *eighty* peers. Mr. Walpole's continuator, however, has included *Scotland* and *Ireland*; has swelled the work to five handsome octavos, and the price to seven guineas; and the 'list is now augmented to *seventeen* royal and *two hundred* noble authors and authoresses in the English series; while the Scottish includes of both ranks nearly fifty, and the Irish about the same number.' The volumes are also enriched with one hundred and fifty well engraved portraits, which greatly enhance the value of the publication.

The rule, which Mr. Walpole prescribed to himself, was "to insert the name of no person of whom there only remained *letters* and *speeches*; as such pieces shew no intention in the writers to become authors;" and had Mr. Park adhered to this maxim, his Catalogue would have been much curtailed. Ann Boleyn, for instance, has no right to a place among royal authors, on the slight ground of conjecture that a poem was written by her 'or in her person,' for on this plea Penelope may be classed among antient authors, since a poetic epistle written 'in her person' has descended to us among the works of Ovid. The original work, moreover, though modestly termed a *Catalogue*, occasionally contains bold and spirited sketches of character, executed in a peculiar style; of which the noble author was sensible that different readers would form different opinions. In this continuation, we discover more of labour than of genius; and no brilliant touches appear in the biographical delineations, to prove that Thomas Park (if we may be permitted to employ a very hackneyed allusion) has "caught the mantle" of Horace Walpole. Let it not, however, be supposed that we wish by this remark to undervalue the talents of the gentleman whose work we are notiting. His advertisement is judicious, his industry has been persevering, his additions even to his noble predecessor's articles are considerable, his gratitude for assistance received is expressed in a gentleman-like manner, and he has furnished a very entertaining and instructive compilation; while he still modestly allows, in his motto, that "these sheets are calculated for the closet of the idle and inquisitive; they do not look up to the shelves of what Voltaire happily calls—*La Bibliotheque du Monde.*"

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* See M. R. Vol. xix. p. 557.

† In the Appendices and Supplement to the Catalogue, published in the Works, the plan is enlarged.

The

The duty which Mr. Park undertook was certainly arduous; and he tells us in his Advertisement that, finding the assistance, either communicated or proffered, to have exceeded his expectations,

'An idea suggested itself of enlarging on Lord Orford's plan of giving a Catalogue only of titled authors, by adding short specimens of their performances somewhat after the manner of Cibber's Lives of the Poets. This task of critical delicacy I have been wishful to perform, with a view to the reader's profit as well as the writer's fame; not unaware that it may prove a thankless toil to cater for a multitude of palates:

——— "since he who writes
Or makes a feast, more certainly invites
His judges than his friends; and not a guest
But will find something wanting or ill drest."

It undoubtedly requires some judgment to cater for the multitude of readers; and when books are made as it were with a pair of scissars, compilers should have their discretion awake, lest the facility of swelling the bulk betray them into the fault of tediousness. Mr. Park continues to explain himself with reference to the work before us:

'As lord Orford's Appendix to the posthumous edition of his Noble Authors could not be transferred to the present, on account of purchased copyright, with the second impression printed for Dodsley I have little interfered, except by the correction of inadvertences, or the insertion of casual omissions; and except, that I have intermixed the peers and peeresses, as lord Orford has disposed the royal writers, in chronological succession. This seemed to promise a more agreeable diversity in the lives and in the portraits. Such additional matter as my own researches, or the kindness of others have enabled me to supply, is marked by the enclosure of brackets, and printed in a smaller type than the original text. Mine, therefore, has become the ventrous essay of annexing an irregular colonade, in a plainer style of architecture, to lord Orford's gorgeous temple of patrician fame.'

The original temple can by no means be termed 'gorgeous:' but it may be said to resemble the singular house and furniture at Strawberry-hill, where it was written, which are rather curious than magnificent, and which furnish much amusement for the virtuoso and antiquary, within a narrow compass.

Among his coadjutors in this undertaking, Mr. Park mentions with gratitude the names of Isaac Reed, George Ellis, Samuel Egerton Brydges, and Richard Gough, Esqrs. as well as those of Dr. Lort, Mr. Cole, Mr. Gyll, and the Earl of Hardwicke. He offers his acknowlegements also to other friends, whose names are incidentally noticed, and his thanks for ready access to the manuscript and printed treasures of the

British Museum. While he is expressing his obligations for favours received, he requests farther communications, having it in contemplation to present us with an additional volume.

To the Royal Authors of England, enumerated by Lord Orford, Mr. Park adds Richard the Second, Henry the Sixth, Ann Boleyn, Princess Elizabeth (Queen of Bohemia), Charles the Second, and Queen Mary II. Charles II., however, though celebrated for his mirth and pleasantry, has not been generally ranked among those who have sought fame by the pen: but it is here asserted that he 'is intitled to have his name inscribed on the muster-roll of royal authors, according to the affirmation of Sir John Hawkins, and even on the negative testimony of Lord Orford * himself, who thought there was nothing in the following amatory song to contradict the report of its having been said, in an old copy, to be written by that witty prince:

"I pass all my hours in a shady old grove,
But I live not the day when I see not my love:
I survey ev'ry walk now my Phillis is gone,
And sigh when I think we were there all alone.
Oh then 'tis I think there's no hell
Like loving too well.

"But each shade and each conscious bow'r when I find
Where I once have been happy, and she has been kind;
When I see the print left of her shape on the green,
And imagin the pleasure may yet come again.
O then 'tis I think that no joys are above
The pleasures of love.

"While alone to myself I repeat all her charms,
She I love may be lockt in another man's arms;
She may laugh at my cares, and so false she may be,
To say all the kind things she before said to me.
On then 'tis, O then, that I think there's no hell
Like loving too well.

"But when I consider the truth of her heart,
Such an innocent passion, so kind without art;
I fear I have wrong'd her, and hope she may be,
So full of true love to be jealous of me:
And then 'tis I think that no joys are above
The pleasures of love."

On the face of the record, as the lawyers would say, it is not improbable that such a prince as Charles II. should pen such a song as the above: but it is not sufficient evidence of his being the author, that it is such a poem as we may fairly suppose him to have written. This monarch may have

* Mr. Park here refers to Walpole's Works, Vol. I. p. 327: but this reference is incorrect.

been

been witty as well as pleasurable, without having given himself the trouble of regular composition; and we should question the propriety of assigning these stanzas to him. It does not appear, indeed, that Mr. Park is satisfied with the evidence of their authenticity:—but among the Addenda and Corrigenda at the end of the last volume, we find a supplement to this article, in which the authorship of Charles is better supported:

'A stronger claim than is here given for enrolling Charles the Second as a royal author was produced by Sir D. Dalrymple, who edited from the Pepysian MSS. in Magd. coll. Cambridge, "An Account of the Preservation of King Charles II. after the Battle of Worcester, drawn up by the King himself." This narrative, at once minute, lively, and interesting, was printed at Edinburgh, and has been published in London, with an Appendix, containing letters from the king to several of his confidential friends. A fac simile of a letter from Charles to one of the Shirley family, may be seen in Nichols's Leicestershire, under *Staunton Harold.* When the widow of Sir William Manwaring, who fell on the walls of Chester, applied to Charles II. for relief; it is handed down by tradition, that he took his blue garter, divided it in two, and, giving her half, declared "it was all he could then command; but if ever he was restored to the throne, he would remember her on producing this relique."

'Churchill has thus truly, though tartly characterized our second Charles:

"From love of England by long absence wean'd,
From every court he every folly glean'd,
And was (so close do evil habits cling)
Till crown'd, a beggar; and when crown'd, no king.
State he resign'd to those whom state could please,
Careless of majesty, his wish was ease:
Pleasure and pleasure only was his aim;
Kings of less wit might hunt the bubble Fame:
Dignity through his reign was made a sport,
Nor dar'd decorum shew her face at court."

A very whimsical reason is offered by Lord Orford, in one of the subsequent appendices before mentioned, for classing Charles Duke of Orleans and Milan among the Royal Authors of England; viz. "because he paid us the singular compliment of attempting to versify our language." In this "excentric addition," he has been followed by Mr. Park; who has enlarged the plea for the enrolment of this royal foreigner in the college of arms on our mount Parnassus. This Duke of Orleans, 'nephew of Charles the sixth of France, and father to Lewis the twelfth, was born in 1391, and taken prisoner at the famous battle of Agincourt, on the 25th of October, 1415, where he was found under a heap of dead bodies, almost lifeless, and detained as a prisoner in England for the space of twenty-

twenty-five years He was confined in a moated mansion at Groombridge, Sussex.'

" Where captur'd banners wav'd beneath the roof
To taunt the royal Troubadour of Gaul."

During this period he endeavoured to soften the rigours of corporal restraint by devoting much of his time to the composition of amatory verses in English and French.

The specimens of English poetry written by this foreign prince, and which now have emerged into notice, after having been concealed for more than four hundred years, are certainly curious: but a little of such poetry as the following will suffice for those who are not insane with the love of all that bears the stamp of antiquity:

" THE LOVER'S LAMENT.

" When that ye goo,
Then am y woo;
But ye, swete foo,
For ought y playne
Ye sett not no
To sle me so,
Allas! and lo!
But whi, soverayne,
Doon ye thus payne
Upon me rayne
Shall y be slayne?
Owt, owt, wordis mo
Wolde ye ben fayne
To se me dayne
Now then certayne
Yet do me slo." &c.

'It is remarkable, (says Mr. Park,) that Lord Orford makes no mention of the MSS. in our Museum which contain so many material effusions by the Duke of Orleans, but seems only to have heard of those preserved in the royal library at Paris, two of which were printed by Mademoiselle Keralio, in her *Collection des meilleurs Ouvrages François*, &c.'

Passing from Royal to Noble Authors, our attention is first directed to the original projector of this biographical edifice; who perhaps little thought that, in so few years after his death, a conspicuous niche would be assigned to him, in an additional colonnade. He, however, who delivered his sentiments of others with so much freedom, could not object to have his own character fairly discussed. Mr. Park has not shrunk from the task, but has executed it without severity. Ex. gr.

'Horatio Walpole, Earl of Orford, the youngest son of that celebrated minister Sir Robert Walpole, more eminent for his

 literary

literary than political career, has given unquestionable proofs of ingenuity in criticism, talent in poetry, and taste in the belles lettres. His propensity for such pursuits he was well enabled to gratify from having inherited the patent places of usher of His Majesty's exchequer *, comptroller of the pipe, and clerk of the escheats in the exchequer for life †: but his birth and death, says Mr. Pinkerton, might have been limited to a monumental inscription, if his mind had not opened a path to a superior emanation of fame. He was born in 1717, and educated at Eton school, where he formed his acquaintance with Gray, a name ever to be respected while genius and literature are honoured by mankind. About 1734 Mr. Walpole proceeded to Cambridge, and entered of King's college.

'His verses in memory of the founder, King Henry the Sixth, dated February 1738, may be regarded as his first production, and no unfavourable presage of his future abilities. In 1739 he prevailed on his father to let him travel for a few years, and took his route to France and Italy, accompanied by Mr. Gray; but upon their return in May 1741, a dispute arose at Reggio, of which Mr. Walpole assumed the blame, and they separated. On his return to England he obtained a seat in the House of Commons, of which he continued a member above twenty five years; and after he closed his public part in politics, was a firm and ardent supporter of the cause of freedom, till the French revolution, or subversion (as Mr. Gibbon emphatically styled it), shook and embroiled all the former opinions of mankind. In 1747 he purchased a small tenement at Strawberry Hill, near Twickenham, which he afterwards altered and enlarged in the Gothic taste of building. In 1757 he there opened a printing press, and first exercised it on the two sublime Odes of Gray, with whom he had renewed his acquaintance in 1744. These were followed by the translation of a part of Hentzner's Travels, and the first edition of the present work, which is undoubtedly the most agreeable, though not the most perfect of his literary performances‡. In the year 1749 his life was nearly closed by the pistol of Maclean the highwayman, which went off by accident §; but he lived to inherit the title of Orford on the death of his nephew in 1791. It was sometime, however, before he would sign or assent

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'* This sinecure office, according to Pinkerton, was worth £3000 a year: and other posts soon followed, to the farther annual amount of £1700. Biographical sketch prefixed to Walpoliana.'

'† See Collins's Peerage, vol. 5. p. 50, where a specimen is given of his filial piety in an epitaph to the memory of his mother.'

'‡ A caprice, sometimes mingled with affectation, and a prevalent desire of saying a witty thing rather than a wise one, will be obvious to the considerate reader: but his lordship had a liveliness in the manner of conveying his sentiments, an intelligent pertinence in his observations, and a brilliant smartness in his mode of passing critical judgment, which appear to have compensated for many defects.'

'§ See the story pleasantly told by Lord Orford in No. 103. of *The World.*'

to

to his new title, and he never took his seat in the House of Peers*. His new honors, the gout and the French revolution, conspired with old age to tease him; and his two last years were unhappy to himself, tormenting to the patience of his servants, and disastrous to some of his old and valued friendships. On the 2d of March 1797, he expired at his house in Berkeley square in the eightieth year of a life prolonged by temperance, and rarely corroded by care, or disturbed by passion. Avarice and vanity appear to have been his leading foibles; affability and a companionable temper his most distinguishing virtues. Lord Orford, we are told, by his biographer, was of a benignant and charitable disposition, but no man ever existed who had less the character of a patron.

'He has said with much sang froid, that "a poet or a painter may want an equipage or villa by wanting protection; but they can always afford to buy ink and paper, colours and pencils." As to artists, he paid them what they earned; and he commonly employed mean ones, that the reward might be the smaller. The portraits in the Anecdotes of Painting disgrace the work; and a monument consecrated to the arts is deeply inscribed with the chilling penury of their supposed patron. As to authors, it would be truly difficult to point out one who received any solid pecuniary advantage. His praise was valuable; but the powers of his voice were not extensive, and never called forth distant echoes. Chatterton could not reasonably expect what neither Gray nor Mason, nor other favorite men of genius, had ever experienced.

'Lord Orford's miscellaneous compositions are too copious and two well known to require enumeration. Those most likely to be reprinted in after-times are the Mysterious Mother, the Castle of Otranto †, the Anecdotes of Painting, and his epistolary Correspondence; much of which appears deserving of selection from Mr.

'* On becoming Earl of Orford he thus wrote to Pinkerton: "A small estate loaded with debt, and of which I do not understand the management, and am too old to learn; a source of lawsuits amongst my near relations; endless conversations with lawyers, and packets of letters every day to read and answer: all this weight of business is too much for the rag of life that yet hangs about me. For the empty title, I trust you do not suppose it any thing but an incumbrance, by larding my busy mornings with idle visits of interruption, and which when I am able to go out I shall be forced to return. Surely no man of seventy-four, unless superannuated, can have the smallest pleasure in sitting at home in his own room as I always do and being called by a *new name*." *Walpoliana.*

'† This had long been the most popular of his writings, from its fascinating influence over the lovers of the marvellous: but they have since been satiated with luxuries more highly seasoned in the same way. Lord Orford said to Pinkerton, "I wrote the Castle of Otranto in eight days, or rather nights; for my general hours of composition are from ten o'clock at night till two in the morning, when I am sure not to be disturbed by visitants." 'Walpoliana.'

Cole's

Cole's MSS. in the Museum, and of being added to the splendid edition of his Lordship's works, published the year after his death in five quarto volumes. The following diffident statement of his merits and pretensions as an author, occurs in a letter to Mr. Pinkerton, dated Oct. 1784, and forms an interesting picture of his own mind, though some of the features will be found a little incongruous with the subsequent prefix to his works. "To anticipate spurious publications by a comprehensive and authentic one, is giving a body to scattered atoms; and such an act in one's old age is declaring a fondness for the indiscretions of youth, or for the trifles of an age which, though more mature, is only the less excuseable. It is most true, that so far from being prejudiced in favour of my own writings, I am persuaded that had I thought early as I think now, I should never have appeared as an author. Age, frequent illness, and pain, have given me as many hours of reflection in the intervals of the two latter, as the two latter have drawn from reflection; and, besides their shewing me the inutility of all our little views, they have suggested an observation that I love to encourage in myself from the rationality of it. I have learnt and have practised the humiliating task of comparing myself with great authors; and that comparison has annihilated all the flattery that self-love could suggest. I know how trifling my own writings are, and how far below the standard that constitutes excellence; for the shades that distinguish mediocrity are not worth discrimination, and he must be very modest or easily satisfied who can be content to glimmer for an instant a little more than his brethren glow-worms. Mine, therefore, you find is not humility, but pride! When young I wished for fame, not examining whether I was capable of attaining it, nor considering in what lights fame was desireable. There are two parts of honest fame; that attendant on the truly great, and that better sort that is due to the good. I fear I did not aim at the latter, nor discovered, till too late, that I could not compass the former. Having neglected the best road, and having instead of the other strolled into a narrow path that led to no goal worth seeking, I see the idleness of my journey, and hold it more graceful to abandon my wanderings to chance or oblivion, than to mark solicitude for trifles which I think so myself."

'The following gallant *jeux d'esprit* did not appear among his Lordship's reprinted poetry *: they were addressed to four French ladies of distinction, who visited him at Strawberry-hill.

"To Madame Du Chatelet.

"When beauteous Helen left her native air
Greece for ten years in arms reclaim'd the Fair,
Th' enamour'd boy withheld his lovely prize,
And stak'd his country's ruin 'gainst her eyes
Your charms less baneful, not less strong appear,
We welcome any peace that keeps you here."

* For which reason, we insert them in this place, though we are aware that they have appeared in some fugitive publications. *Rev.*

"To

"To Madame De Villegagnon, on the seizure of her Clothes by the Custom-house Officers.

"Pardon, fair traveller, the troop
That barr'd your wardrobe's way;
Nor think your silks, your gown, your hoop,
Were objects of their prey.
Ah! who, when authoriz'd by law
To strip a form like your's,
Would rest content with what he saw,
And not exert his pow'rs?"

"To Madame de Damas, learning English.

"Though British accents your attention fire,
You cannot learn so fast as we admire.
Scholars like you but slowly can improve,
For who would teach you but the verb—*I love.*"

"To Madame De la Vaupiliere.

"Shall Britain sigh, when zephyr's softest care
Wafts to her shores the bright *la Vaupiliere?*
Ah! yes; descended from the British throne,
She views a Nymph she must not call her own.
She sees how dear her Stuart's exile cost,
By Clermont's charms and Berwick's valour lost."

'The following appears to be one of his Lordship's latest effusions:

'*Epitaphium vivi Auctoris*, 1792.

"An estate and an earldom at seventy-four,
Had I sought them or wish'd them, 'twould add one fear more,
That of making a Countess when almost fourscore.
But fortune, who scatters her gifts out of season,
Though unkind to my limbs has still left me my reason;
And whether she lowers or lifts me, I'll try
In the plain simple style I have liv'd in, to die,
For ambition too humble, for meanness too high."

Having thus given our readers an opportunity of judging in what way Mr Park has imitated his noble prototype, we shall return to notice the early part of this continuation, into which names are inserted that figured not in the Walpolian catalogue. Here the claim of authorship is asserted for Henry first Duke of Lancaster; for Sir John Montacute, Earl of Salisbury; for Edward, Duke of York; for Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester; for Lord Seymour, of Sudley; for Thomas, Lord Vaux of Harwedon; for Henry, Lord Paget; for Walter Devereux, Earl of Essex; for Ann Cecil, Countess of Oxford; for Margaret, Countess of Cumberland; for Thomas West, Lord De-la-Warre; for Sir Grey Brydges, Lord Chandos; for Thomas Howard,

Howard, Earl of Suffolk; for James Ley, Earl of Marlborough; for Anthony Browne, Viscount Montague; for Anne, Countess of Arundel; and for many others of our old nobility, some of whom we may venture to assert never dreamed of being entered on the rolls of literary fame.

Among our nobles of more recent date, we find short memoirs of Baptist Noel, Earl of Gainsborough; Richard Edgecombe, Lord Mount Edgecombe; Henrietta Louisa Jeffreys, Countess of Pomfret; George Bubb Doddington, Lord Melcombe; and John Boyle, Earl of Cork and Orrery. This last mentioned nobleman was not only a respectable author, but felt and appreciated the value of letters, as the following extract will evince, which we transcribe with pleasure, since it cannot be too often perused. In his commentary on Lib. viii. epist. 19. of the younger Pliny, he says

'The observation in the beginning of this letter, *et gaudium mihi et solatium in literis: nihilque tam lætum, quod his lætius; nihil tam triste, quod non per hos sit minus triste,* is not less remarkable than true: and although Pliny confines it to himself, yet it may be admitted as an aphorism applicable to all mankind, that 'our sorrows are alleviated, and our joys increased by study.' Books, when properly used, are our truest friends, and our most comfortable companions. They teach us in what manner to enjoy pleasures, and in what manner to bear adversity. They visit us without intrusion, and they converse with us without constraint. So that if it were possible for us in our childish and most youthful state of life, to foresee the future benefit and satisfaction that must arise in our minds from a thorough application to arts and sciences, our diversions would not engage our whole attention, but would become accessary amusements, and our studies would give us delight. Learning cannot be acquired too soon, or sought after too extensively.

"Get knowlege, search it wheresoe'er you can:
This from the brute discriminates the man;
Shews from what great original he came,
Image of God, though clad in mortal frame.
Thus arm'd, we conquer cares and inward strife,
Again retrieve, and grasp the tree of life:
On eagle's wings we cut th' etherial sky,
And trace th' Almighty's works with mortal eye."

We find also accounts of Charles Wyndham, Earl of Egremont; Philip Yorke, first Earl of Hardwicke; George Parker, Earl of Macclesfield; William Pulteney, Earl of Bath; Charles Sackville, Duke of Dorset; Charles Yorke, Lord Morden; Philip Dormer Stanhope, fourth Earl of Chesterfield; George Lord Lyttelton; Henry Fox, Lord Holland; Elizabeth, Duchess of Northumberland; Anna Chambers, Countess Temple; John West, Earl Delaware; William Pitt, Earl of Chatham;

Chatham; John Dunning, Lord Ashburton; George Viscount Sackville; John Montague, fourth Earl of Sandwich; Thomas Pitt, Lord Camelford; Charles Pratt, Earl Camden; David Murray, Earl of Mansfield; Alexander Wedderburn, Earl of Rosslyn; and William Petty, Marquis of Lansdown.

We have not space for continuing our enumeration from the Scottish and Irish lists, but must close this article with an abbreviated extract from the notice of George, Earl of Macartney, which terminates the work:

'This nobleman was born in 1737, and educated as a fellow-commoner in Trinity college, Dublin. In Feb. 1768 he married Lady Jane Stuart, second daughter of the Earl of Bute.—In May 1792 he was named Ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to the Emperor of China;—and he died March 31, 1806, and was privately interred at Chiswick, in compliance with his will.' Some lines follow which 'form part of a poem *ascribed* to him and addressed to Hugh Boyce, Esq.;' and among the Addenda we found a Latin inscription by Lord Macartney, 'written after his return from China, which was placed on the gate of Lissanoure-castle in the county of Antrim, and concluded with the following lines:

" *Nosmet Erin genuit, vidit nos Africa, Gangem*
Hausimus, Europæque plagas propè visimus omnes,
Nec latuit regio primum patefacta Columbo:
Sinarum licuit dextram tetigisse Tyranni,
Tartaricos montes, magnum et transcendere murum,
Turbidaque impavidi tentavimus alta Pechelæ *
Hactenus Europæ nullis sulcata carinis:
Casibus et variis acti terràque marique,
Sistimus his tandem, atque Lares veneramur avorum."

These lines are elegantly classical, and do credit to his Lordship's taste.

In reviewing works of the kind now before us, we experience considerable mortification, since we can afford our readers so very limited a view of their multifarious contents. Many errors may exist respecting references and quotations, which we have not time and opportunity to examine, and some pieces may be assigned to persons who never wrote them †. We can only repeat that no pains have been spared to render this compilation extensively amusing, and that the plates form a valuable series of portraits. Mr. Park will probably therefore be encouraged to extend his 'irregular colonnade.'

'* A bay to the north of the Canton river, into which the river falls, through which Lord Macartney went to Pekin.'

† For instance, the lines on *Will Abdy*, the Huntsman, written by the late *Thelyphthora* Madan, are here given to Frances Manners, Countess of Tyrconnel.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For AUGUST, 1807.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 10. *Discursory Considerations on the supposed Evidence of the early Fathers that St. Matthew's Gospel was the first written.* By a Country Clergyman. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Payne.

NEVER were critical diligence and assiduity more completely thrown away than on the present occasion. We were led on, through more than a hundred pages, with the expectation of being finally rewarded by some notable theological discovery: but, after the mountain had laboured, and streams of Greek lava had been emitted from its crater, something less than a mouse is brought forth. Vast preparation is made for subverting the commonly received opinion that St. Matthew's Gospel was first written, and for proving that the honor of *Protography* (what a pretty word!) belongs to that of St. Luke. Early authorities are examined, and every attempt is made by cross-examination to weaken their evidence, but with little success. At last, and as a *dernier resort*, the author fixes on a passage in Papias; and by objecting to the version given by Lardner, and by substituting one of his own, he hopes to effect something. Here, however, he as completely fails as in his former attempt; unless the reader will allow him to render ἡρμηνευσε δ' αυτα ὡς ηδυνατο ἑκαστος, "*And he translated them, so that every one was enabled to read them.*" Had Lardner made such a version, he would indeed have merited this clergyman's censures; who now seems to have criticized the author of the *Credibility* in too much haste. However, he grows modest and doubtful of himself before he concludes; observing that 'he scarcely knows how to say to the learned reader, *his utere mecum*, and that his purpose has been rather to inform himself than to *indoctrinate* others.' A singular confession, at the end of so critical a disquisition!

Mo-y.

Art. 11. *A Catechism for the Use of all the Churches in the French Empire:* to which are prefixed the Pope's Bull and the Archbishop's Mandamus. Translated from the Original, with an Introduction and Notes. By David Bogue. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Williams and Smith.

English Protestant readers will feel obliged to Mr. Bogue for this curious morsel of Popish Faith and Devotion, and will not be ungrateful for his introductory remarks on the errors contained in this catechism, though to all persons versed in the N. T. it carries its own antidote. They will perceive on the perusal of it, that on the continent the modern system of Popery differs little from the antient; and if it be shorn of its beams of worldly opulence and powers it retains its high spiritual pretensions and all its revolting doctrine, and superstitions. Here not only is the *Infallibility* of the Church of Rome roundly asserted, but even its right to grant *Indulgences*.

Confession to the Priest is also urged; though, as Mr. Bogue observes, this practice 'is one of the most shocking breaches of mental modesty;' and the worship of *created Beings* is also recommended. Mr. B. seems astonished that not a word is said of the obligation to *read the sacred Scriptures*: but, as the above doctrines find in these records no countenance, it is at least prudent not to recommend their perusal.

In the enumeration of *moral* duties, great fairness and precision are manifest as far as the Catechist proceeds: but, as Mr. B. judiciously remarks, we are presented with only one side of the picture; the obligations of inferiors to superiors are minutely detailed, but not a word is added on the obligations of superiors towards inferiors. In the Lesson on the 4th (our 5th) commandment, the pupil is taught the duties which he owes to princes in general, and to Napoleon in particular: but nothing is addressed in the catechism to the young princes of the new dynasty. This part of the composition is so curious, as expressive of the flattery with which the Church endeavours to ingratiate herself into the good graces of her new protector, that we shall transcribe it:

'*Q.* What are the duties of Christians in regard to the princes who govern them, and in particular what are our duties towards Napoleon the first, our emperor?

'*A.* Christians owe to the princes who govern them, and we owe in particular to Napoleon the first, our emperor, love, respect, obedience, fidelity, military service, and the tributes ordained for the preservation and the defence of the empire and of his throne; besides, we owe him fervent prayers for his safety, and for the temporal and spiritual prosperity of the state.

'*Q.* Why are we bound to all these duties towards our emperor?

'*A.* First, because God who creates empires, and who distributes them according to his will, in loading our emperor with favours, whether in peace or war, has established him our sovereign, has made him the minister of his power, and his image on earth. To honour and serve our emperor is therefore to honour and serve God himself. Secondly, because our Lord Jesus Christ, as well by his doctrine as by his example, has himself taught us what we owe to our sovereign; he was born under obedience to the decree of Cæsar Augustus; he payed the tribute prescribed; and in the same manner as he has commanded to render to God what belongs to God, he has also commanded to render to Cæsar what belongs to Cæsar.

'*Q.* Are there not particular motives which ought to attach us more strongly to Napoleon the first, our emperor?

'*A.* Yes: for he it is whom God has raised up in difficult circumstances to re-establish the public worship of our fathers' holy religion, and to be the protector of it; he has restored and preserved public order by his profound and active wisdom; he defends the state by his powerful arm, and is become the anointed of the Lord by the consecration which he has received from the chief Pontiff, head of the universal church.

'*Q.* What are we to think of those who should fail in their duty towards the emperor?

'*A.* According

'*A.* According to St. Paul, the Apostle, they would resist the order established by God himself, and would render themselves worthy of eternal damnation.'

A fact is mentioned at the end of Mr. Bogue's Introduction, which consoles him under this re-establishment of Popery in France.

'At present the Protestants enjoy full liberty of conscience and worship, and a provision from the state, at least equal to that of the parochial Catholic clergy, &c. and there is no law to hinder them from propagating their system to the utmost of their power, and attempting to draw as many converts to their communion as they possibly can. If they therefore be what they ought to be, and do what they ought to do, and exert themselves with the energy which is employed by the lovers of Christ in England, the present regulations and publications will do them no harm.'

As the religion of the Church of Rome must now stand on its own merits, and openly meet Protestantism in the field of argument, unassisted by her quondam auxiliaries, it is for the advantage of the latter that the former has obstinately adhered to every objectionable part of her system. It may fairly be presumed that, under these circumstances, Protestantism will make advances in France; and we may add that, if Popery, in consequence of this equal toleration, loses ground on the other side of the channel, the apprehensions which are entertained here on the score of Catholic emancipation must be groundless. The Protestant religion, resting on the basis of reason and scripture, needs not avail herself of the aid of the state, either by positive or negative persecution, in order to promote her interests. Indeed, we indirectly vilify her, when we contend for the necessity of disabling statutes for her protection.

Mo.y.

NOVELS.

Art. 12. *Popular Tales.* By Miss Edgeworth. 3 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Boards. Johnson.

The object of these tales being to shew the good effects of virtue in the humbler stations of life, a strict adherence to truth, honesty, industry, prudence, economy, unity among families, &c. are represented as meeting with peculiar advantages; and the narratives are intitled *Popular*, 'from a wish that they may be current beyond circles which are sometimes exclusively considered as polite.' The work is certainly calculated to be of great benefit to those for whom it is more particularly designed; while, on the other hand, the more polished reader, when satiated with the intricacy and high-colouring of elaborate fiction, will experience pleasure in attending to these simple representations. We mentioned Miss E.'s *Moral Tales* in our 39th vol. N. S. p. 334.

W. Re-s.

Art. 13. *Leonora.* By Miss Edgeworth. 2 Vols. Cr. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Johnson.

Contemplating in this work a much more important object than merely the *amusement* of the reader, Miss Edgeworth endeavours to shew the bad tendency of some of the principles of the modern

school; and particularly those which relate to the conduct of the ladies. Excess of sensibility; a greater attention to *rights* than *duties*; the calling matrimony *a barbarous institution*,—prudence, *coldness*, fortitude, *insensibility*,—and modesty, *hypocrisy*; a preference of the graces to the virtues; and the forfeiture of innocence and reputation glossed over as an emancipation from the tyranny of custom, these and other sentiments of a similar nature are strongly reprobated, and the unsuspecting female is cautioned against thinking favourably of them, however plausibly they may have been introduced to her knowlege.

Lady Olivia, who had adopted the abovementioned principles, who was separated from her husband, and who was shunned by the world in consequence of her wounded reputation, is, from motives of pity, protected by the amiable and virtuous Leonora: but Lady Olivia requites this kindness by robbing her protectress of the partner of her affections, and inducing him to elope with her. He is, however, at length convinced of the impropriety of his conduct, and returns to his wife with increased regard; and Lady Olivia is supposed to be going to the Continent, as more congenial than England to her disposition and sentiments.

The language of this work is animated and interesting; and the characters are very ably supported, particularly that of Lady Olivia: but the sentimental reader will be disposed to think that the portrait of Leonora is too cold to be natural, and consequently the interest in her favour, which she really deserves, will be much lessened:—while the strict moralist, on account of the familiar way in which the intrigues of the gay world are mentioned, will perhaps fear for the effects of these volumes in the hands of young persons. W.Re-s

Art. 14. *Eversfield Abbey.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 9s. sewed. Crosby and Co.

Strong colours are here employed in pourtraying the opposite characters of the heroine Agnes Eversfield, and her cousin Mary Hotham; the one is a pattern of piety, meekness, forbearance, resignation, patience, and obedience to her parents; while the other is confident, impetuous, inflexible, excentric, romantic, and undutiful. In the happiness which attends the former, and the misery which overwhelms the latter, the young female reader may learn an excellent lesson to direct her through life. D.o

Art. 15. *Sophia St. Clare.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. sewed. Johnson.

In this work the bad effects of monastic institutions on the happiness of their inmates are feelingly described, and the fatal consequence of groundless jealousy are forcibly represented. The construction of the tale is simple, but it is ably related; the language is natural and easy, and the sentiments are laudable:—had the story been less dolorous, particularly in the termination, the effect of the whole would have been more pleasing. D.o

Art. 16. *Tales*, by Madame de Montolieu, Author of Catharine of Lichtfeld. 12mo. 3 Vols. 7s. 6d. Chapple.

We are informed that these tales were originally written as a species of entertainment, which consisted 'in selecting pictures, and then writing stories to illustrate the subjects of them.' The author, and some ladies

ladies in her company, drew lots for the pictures in the apartments in which they passed their evenings; and each explained, as well as she could, those which fell to her share. This amusement, as it cultivates the understanding, and improves the powers of the mind, deserves commendation: but every person will not succeed in it so well as the author of the work before us. Her tales display a very fertile imagination, and are very entertaining: but, as they were written solely for amusement, the bounds of probability are freely exceeded, the effects of talismans and transformations are introduced, and, in short, nothing is rejected that contributes to the desired purpose. W. Re-s.

Art. 17. *Scenes of Life.* By T. Harral, Esq. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. sewed. Crosby and Co.

Mr. Harral professes his more particular object in this novel to be 'the exposure of folly, and the castigation of vice;' and certainly on some topics of animadversion he is very severe. His intentions are evidently of the best kind: but many persons, according to their education and views of life, will question the propriety of several of his remarks; the abettors of methodism in particular will consider themselves as misrepresented, and the espousers of patriotic principles will deem themselves unfairly used. Owing to the introduction of various subjects, a strange mixture is sometimes exhibited; and many parts are unconnected with the tale. In *working up* extraneous matter in novels, the author is often disappointed in his aim; since the generality of readers, confining themselves to the incidents, pass over unread those places which were designed to receive particular attention. Several pleasing poetical compositions are interspersed; and the tale itself, although encumbered with long digressions, is still interesting. Do

Art. 18. *Rosetta;* by a Lady well known in the Fashionable World. 4 Vols. 12mo. 14s. Boards. Longman and Co.

This tale is calculated to interest the feelings in a very considerable degree, and the characters are strongly marked, especially that of Guy Cunningham: but we are sorry that human nature could furnish the materials for such a portrait; and the reader will be also shocked at the unnatural attachment of Eliza Maitland. The sentiments introduced are tender and appropriate: but the composition is frequently incorrect, even to false concords, and is altogether in the careless style of the common rank of novels. Do

Art. 19. *The Impenetrable Secret; Find it out.* By Francis Lathom. 12mo. 2 Vols. 6s. sewed. Lane and Co.

In this composition, the author has contrived to raise and keep up the curiosity of the reader with no small ability; the *Secret* is certainly *impenetrable*, until it is disclosed, and considerable satisfaction is experienced at the developement. The sentiments are also chaste, and the moral tendency is good. Do

Art. 20. *Feudal Tyrants;* or the Counts of Carlsheim and Sargans. A Romance, taken from the German. By M. G. Lewis, Author of the Bravo of Venice, Adelgitha, Rugantino, &c. 4 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 8s. sewed. Hughes.

On seeing the name of Mr. Lewis, we hoped that some taste had been exercised in the selection which he has here made: but, on the contrary, never was heard any thing so dismal as the direful croaking of this German raven! O.

Art. 21. *Simple Tales*, by Mrs. Opie. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co.

These tales possess merits similar to those which we have before noticed in another production * of the same writer; and we willingly recommend them to the perusal of such persons as love to gratify their feelings by this kind of reading. O.

POETRY, *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 22. *The Fall of the Mogul*, a Tragedy, founded on an interesting portion of Indian History, and attempted partly on the Greek Model. With other occasional Poems. By the Author of Indian Antiquities. 8vo. 7s. Boards. White.

Mr. Maurice, the author of this tragedy, is probably aware that its Oriental allusions and Grecian form render it totally unfit for representation on an English stage: but we fear also, which perhaps he does not suspect, that the same causes would operate as objections to it when considered merely as a poem. At all events, we must confess that we completed our perusal of it without experiencing any of those emotions which a good tragedy cannot fail to excite. Two short pieces, requiring no particular comment, form the occasional poems. O.

Art. 23. *Human Life*, a Poem in Five Parts. Crown 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

We are here occasionally presented with some stanzas intitled to praise: but, on the whole, the poem is, like its subject—a chequered piece of business; and we fear that, like some gloomy estimators of human existence, we must pronounce the dark spots to be but too prevalent. O.

Art. 24. *The Hypochondriack*, a Sentimental Poem. By Wilbraham Liardet. 8vo. 1s. Harris.

If in the preceding article we were led to trace a resemblance between the subject treated and the manner of treating it, in the present production we have an absolute identity—all is dark—not one luminous track occurs;—and its readers may indeed be *hypochondriacs*. O.

LAW.

Art. 25. *Memorial of the Lords of Session*, and Report from the Committee of the Faculty of Advocates, on the Bill for better regulating the Courts of Session in Scotland. 8vo. pp. 56. 2s. 6d. Ridgway. 1807.

In the communication of the Lords we discern evident hostility, and in that of the Advocates a favourable disposition, towards the measure which is here discussed; and we cannot but pronounce that

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* *Adeline Mowbray*. See M. R. vol. li. p. 320.

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the latter is dictated by a more enlightened spirit, and embraces more comprehensive views than the former. Judges ourselves, our bias might be supposed to be in favour of the Lords of Session: but duty constrains us to state that the *Report* is in every respect superior to the *Memorial;* and we are sure that the most prejudiced will not appeal from our *sentence* in this instance.

We select the most favourable specimen from the performance of the learned lords, in which we very much coincide with them:

'If Trial by Jury is to be introduced at all, it is our opinion, that it can only succeed if introduced at first on a very limited scale indeed. The benefits of Trial by Jury, supposing them to be as great as possible, cannot be expected to result from it independently of the skill by which it is conducted, and that skill can only be acquired by experience. The habits of the people too cannot be changed in a moment; and we know by fatal experience in this, as well as in other countries, that Trial by Jury, even in criminal cases, is of little advantage, if the habits and sentiments of the people are not in unison with it.

'Therefore if Trial by Jury is to be adopted, it is our opinion, that at least it ought to be limited at first to the simplest cases, such as arise out of actions which we call *quasi delicts;* and which approaching to the nature of crimes, and being attended with moral wrong in the one party, and with injury to the other, seem best adapted to the cognizance of a jury; and if it is extended to other cases, we are of opinion, that Trial by Jury should not be granted at the requisition of the parties, but at the discretion of the court; and leaving it to the court to prescribe the issue to be tried.'

The remarks of their lordships on the subject of appeals seem to us by no means disparaging to them; and though we do not deem the passage sufficiently interesting to insert it in our pages, we regard it as highly deserving the attention of the august body to which it is addressed.

If we see nothing in the Memorial to make us shrink from a comparison between the members of the supreme Scottish tribunal and the Judges of England, perhaps our feeling would not be precisely the same if we were called to decide between the *Apprenticii* and *Servientes* of Westminster-Hall and the learned Faculty of Edinburgh. The document before us, though it furnishes no absolute proofs of superiority, contains strong indications of professional eminence. The English bar, indeed, can boast of men profoundly versed in the knowlege of law: but, if a generalizing spirit, if enlarged views of the science, and of its progress and state, as compared with other objects of human pursuit, are to be taken into the account, we doubt whether all the fraternity of Westminster-Hall will appear to equal advantage with the Faculty of Advocates of the North.——They thus introduce their report:

'The Committee must begin by observing, that the progressive improvement of the laws and judicial procedure in Scotland since the era of the Union, has not kept pace with the rapid advances which the nation has made in trade, manufactures, agriculture, or in science, literature, and the liberal arts. That this has chiefly arisen from the

removal of the legislature to England, and the want of that superintending care and attention of a parliament residing upon the spot, to those changes in the laws, and in the forms of administering justice, which the progressive state of the country required. That in every session of the Scottish parliament, previous to the Union, the municipal laws or courts in Scotland underwent constant improvements; but, with the single exception of the Jurisdiction Act, which, though the greatest national benefit obtained since the Union, was produced by the rebellion that immediately preceded that act, the attention of the legislature to the improvement of the laws and forms of judicial procedure, has been almost exclusively confined to the amendment of the election laws, bankrupt acts, and the enlargement of the powers of justices of peace. That it is obvious, however, that the municipal laws and forms, which were perfectly adapted to the situation of the country at the close of the 17th century, may be very inadequate to the state and necessities of the people in the 19th century.'

In commenting on some of the proposed regulations, we meet with the following observations, which are conceived in the truest spirit of genuine philosophy:

'When a barrister is created a judge, he relinquishes his former society at the bar, enters into a new order, and begins a new course of education as a judge. The forensic habits of becoming a party in every action, and some degree of address and dexterity unavoidably attached in practice to the purest characters, must be relinquished on the bench; and he must acquire, from a new course of discipline, and still more from the deliberations of his brethren, more enlarged and enlightened ideas of law. In proportion as a judge relinquishes or retains his forensic habits, he becomes more or less perfect in the new character which he must assume on the bench.'—

'Some limit should be put to the power of Judges in Chambers to review their own sentences. This licence of unlimited variation, trains them to an unsteady, rash, and wavering tone of mind, and produces much of that vacillation and unsteadiness of judgment, by which the progress of our law has been impeded more than by any other thing: that the Committee therefore report, that, under the new Bill, representations should be limited in the outer House, and that only one petition should be allowed in the inner Chambers; and at any rate, that no case should be re-considered in the latter, unless the Court, upon a motion for a re-hearing, should be satisfied that there was ground for such an indulgence.'

We regret that our limits will not allow of farther extracts from this valuable communication. We dismiss it with observing that, if the general attainments, the liberality, the acuteness, and the frankness of the learned gentlemen appear to advantage, they are not wanting also in that regard to their own views and prospects which is supposed to be characteristic of the profession and of the country. While we state this, we wish to be understood farther to state that, on every material point introduced by the learned gentlemen, we deem almost all their recommendations worthy of being adopted. **Jo.**

Art. 26. *Considerations concerning a Proposal for dividing the Court of Session into Classes or Chambers;* and for limiting litigation in small Causes;

Causes; and for the Revival of Jury Trial in certain civil Actions. 8vo. pp. 129. 4s. Ridgway. 1807.

The important matters under consideration in this pamphlet are very ably and elaborately discussed. A detailed account is given of the forms and practice of the courts which it is intended to reform, and of the inconveniences and abuses against which it is proposed to guard. The tract may excite less interest on this side of the Tweed than may by some be expected: but this will be the case only because the points, which the author so luminously and satisfactorily elucidates and establishes, have in our minds, from long usage and habit, the force of axioms and data. This remark will apply to all that is here advanced in favour of our modes of judicature; while the few criticisms that are made on them well merit attention. They are useful hints from a friendly and enlightened stranger.

The leading changes are thus stated in the summary with which the author closes his work;

'1*mo*, That from and after the day of the Court of Session shall be divided into two Chambers: The first to consist of the Lord President, and five at least of the Ordinary Lords of Session who are not Commissioners of Justiciary, and to be called the Chamber of Session: The second to consist of the Lord Justice-Clerk, and the five Lords of Session who are also Commissioners of Justiciary; the Justice-Clerk to preside; and this Chamber to be called the Chamber of Justiciary.

'2*do*, That the remaining Lords of Session, in case they are disabled by old age or infirmities, and shall obtain leave from His Majesty for that effect, be relieved from the duty of their office, but retain their rank and salaries during life.

'3*tio*, That the Chamber of Session, of whom three to be a quorum, shall have all the powers and jurisdictions in matters of law or equity that are competent to the present Court of Session; and their decrees to have the same force and authority, and not to be liable to review by the whole Court, or otherwise than by appeal to the House of Lords.

'4*to*, That the Chamber of Justiciary be equally a supreme Court, and their decrees to have the like force and effect as those of the first Chamber; their jurisdiction to extend to every matter of common and statute law; and particularly, that they preside in jury-trials, in case it shall be thought expedient to revive that mode in certain civil causes, as after mentioned. The last seven days of each Session to be set apart for such jury-trials as the Court may order to proceed in the city of Edinburgh; any three of this Chamber to make a quorum; providing always, That in the case of jury-trials any one of their number shall be sufficient: That they shall be relieved of judging in certain of the causes, called Concluded Causes, when the evidence is taken down in writing; or, in some other shape, have some reasonable compensation of relief for the additional trouble they may get by jury-trials.

'5*to*, That in nice and new points of law it shall be competent for either of the Chambers, in their discretion, to order short cases to be made up, for being heard, argued, or otherwise advised by the

whole Twelve Judges, who shall meet occasionally, or at stated times, for that purpose, or for such business as may be thought expedient to reserve to them.'—

'7*mo*, That in all actions, concluding for reduction or restitution, or for damages or disabilities, on the head of fraud or injury, or in other causes of great importance or perplexity, brought before the Court of Session, when the evidence depends on parole testimony, it shall be lawful for the said Court, if they see fit, to make and issue an act or order for appointing the trial to be by jury; such jury to consist of not fewer than nine, and not more than thirteen persons.'

The other changes consist either of minute regulations, or of assimilations to English practice. This able pamphlet is ascribed to Lord Swinton. Jo.

Art. 27. *Expediency of Reform in the Court of Session in Scotland*, proved in Two learned Pamphlets, published in the Years 1786 and 1789, and now reprinted, to illustrate the Necessity of the Bill for better regulating the Courts of Justice in Scotland. 8vo. pp. 68. 2s. Ridgway. 1807.

It is shewn in this tract that the alterations in the Scottish Judicature, which were submitted to the last Parliament, are not new suggestions, but that on the contrary they have been frequently under consideration. Trial by jury, in civil as well as in criminal causes, is proved to have been a part of the antient law of Scotland; and it is also successfully contended that the proposed innovations did not infringe on any of the provisions of the Union.

Report attributes the present tract to the late Lord Advocate of Scotland, Mr. Henry Erskine. Jo.

POLITICS.

Art. 28. *A Letter to the Right Honourable Lord Viscount Howick, on the Subject of the Catholic Bill.* By the Author of Unity the Bond of Peace, &c. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1807.

Art. 29. *A Second Letter to Ditto*, by *Ditto*. 8vo. 1s. 6d. *Ditto*.

This honest man is of opinion, and he fairly states it, that the opposition to the late measure in favour of our catholic fellow subjects was popular, only because it was agreeable to the court; and this is to him a subject of deep concern, since he regrets that the cry did not originate from aversion to the measure itself. We agree with him in his primary idea: but that which occasions him mortification affords us consolation. The multitude, he observes, is versatile; so are courts also; we are therefore not without hope that we may yet see the time when the spirit of christian charity will be paramount, and when we shall be one people, united by the bonds of common rights and common privileges. To see the preachers of a religion, which inculcates heavenly-mindedness, disinterestedness, and universal brotherhood, zealously standing up for exclusion from civil rights on account of modes of faith, is to us not very grateful: but it is a sight which gives delight to the enemies of those principles. We are very sure that the Gospel does not inculcate this doctrine. Jo.

Art. 30. *A few Observations on the Danger of admitting Roman Catholics into Offices either civil or military:* recommended to the serious Consideration of all Parties. By a Magistrate of the County of Berks. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1807.

However confined may be the views of this worthy gentleman, we will allow that his intentions are upright. His intolerance cannot be dissembled, but we are satisfied that it does not arise from a spirit of domination, from jealousy, nor from envy, but from fear. He may be well versed in Bott and Burn, but to all precision of ideas and style he is a perfect stranger. In his opinion, we become all catholics ourselves, the moment we render civil honours and emoluments accessible to the members of the Romish religion; if we restore them their civil rights, we *eo instante* establish popery. For this we have only his assertion, but he seems very confident.—To compensate for the small portion of information which has fallen to the share of this well-meaning person, and for the puerility of his reasoning, he is distinguished by his loyalty, and his devotion to our institutions. He repeatedly asserts that, for our free government, and all our civil rights, we are indebted to protestantism. We think as highly of protestantism as the Berkshire Magistrate, but we had always imagined, that some important corner stones of the admirable fabric of our constitution had been laid by our popish ancestors. Jo.

Art. 31. *Considerations on the Danger of the Church.* 8vo. 1s. Ostell.

The author of these pages is not alarmed for the Established Church on considering the state of the Catholics, of the Presbyterians, of the Independents, of the Baptists, or of the Unitarians: but he is of opinion that some fears may reasonably be entertained of the Methodists. The Unitarian society is reported to be cold, declining, and not amounting in the whole to ten thousand men; so that it is of little moment in a political view: the Methodists, however, are represented as most formidable in their numbers, as intolerant in their principles, and as deceitful in their pretended friendship for the Establishment. 'History,' it is remarked, 'affords no account of our Church being overturned by erroneous reasoners, by cool and speculative philosophers; but fanatics overturned it in Cromwell's time; and fanatics, if sufficiently numerous, may overturn it again.'—This writer coincides with others in reporting the declining state of the Quakers; which, he says, he mentions without rejoicing at it, since 'no religious sect in this kingdom is intitled to so much praise and so little censure.'

The remarks in this pamphlet are not without some claim to consideration, and its spirit is occasionally worthy of praise. Moy.

AMERICAN AFFAIRS.

Art. 32. *A true Picture of the United States of America:* being a brief Statement of the Conduct of the Government and People of that Country towards Great Britain, from the Peace concluded in 1783, to the present Time. By a British Subject. 8vo. 3s. Jordan and Co.

Art.

Art. 33. *Softly, Brave Yankees!!!* or the West Indies rendered independent of America; and Africa civilized. Dedicated to the African Association. By the Author of a true Picture of America. [See the preceding Page.] 8vo. 2s. Jordan and Co.

Reluctant to promote animosity and ill-blood between Great Britain and the United States, we have always been unwilling to believe the reports which have been industriously circulated, respecting the malignant disposition of the Americans towards this country; and, from liberal and patriotic principles, we have discountenanced those writers who have endeavoured to foment mutual enmity by the most palpable misrepresentations, and the grossest abuse. They first tell us that we are hated by the Americans, and then they take most effectual pains to stimulate to hatred, by applying to them the most insulting and opprobrious epithets. As long as we are capable of distinguishing virtue from vice, and policy from impolicy, we shall persevere in reprobating such a line of conduct. Far are we from intending to conceal the faults of America, or even to deny all ground for apprehending that her affection is much alienated from us: but we would be cautious of widening the breach, and of giving her, by our conduct, any pretext for open or concealed enmity. Taking it for granted that some prejudice against this country exists in America, must it not be admitted that most of our writers on this side of the water labour hard to keep it alive; and that those publications are most acceptable in which the *Yankees* (as the Americans are contemptuously called) are most abused? We foresee and deprecate the consequences of this measure. Nations may be *written up* to war, and the horrors of the sword may be traced to the indiscretions of the pen.

If the Americans did not hate the English before, must they not begin to feel angry when our writers (as in the instances before us) tell them that they 'cannot be said to possess character; that they are as capricious as unprincipled; and that they have reached that pitch of depravity in their private as well as public character, that to hear of our subjugation by French conquest would be to them a political millenium?' This sort of language is evidently meant to irritate, not to conciliate, and it pervades all the present pages:

'He knows,' says the author, 'the American character; he is acquainted with that deadly hatred, which is cherished in the majority of American breasts towards this, their mother country.—He knows also, the fellow feeling, the ardent affection that the majority of that people have for France, whether she be governed by king, convention, consul, or emperor. He is also aware of their ignorance of true policy; and is too well acquainted with them not to know that malign jealousy that makes them look with envious eyes on the proud and elevated station which this country now holds; and the unutterable joy *they* would feel in seeing the arch-fiend now ruling continental Europe, wielding upon it his pestilential sceptre.—This they would hail as an epoch when happiness was to commence, *although their destruction is sure to succeed it;* and that too, with the utmost rapidity.'

How

How preferable, in our opinion, would have been the discussion of the latter than of the former part of this text; and how much better would this *British Subject* have employed his time, had he endeavoured to convince the Americans, that to cherish enmity against us, and to side with France, will ultimately prove enmity to themselves? It is by such reasoning that we must bring them to be our steady allies, and prevent the existing misunderstanding from ripening into bloody hostility. Errors may be repaired while nations are well disposed to each other, but not when by pamphlets and newspapers (those fire-brands of the mind) they are made ripe for war. We presume not to decide to whom the blame attaches in the late unhappy conflict between a British and an American ship: but we trust that sufficient good sense may be found in both countries, to prevent such an unfortunate affair from becoming the occasion of a serious rupture.

It is the object of the writer, in his address intitled *Softly, Brave Yankees!* to prove that the West India Islands are not so absolutely dependent on America as is generally supposed, and that in time they may be amply supplied from other quarters. He particularly directs our attention to Southern Africa, or the region of the Cape, as singularly adapted to the purpose of furnishing provisions of all kinds; and of growing cotton of the best qualities, sufficient to answer the demand of our home manufactures. The utility of our conquests in South America, considered with relation to the West India Islands, is hinted: but the author chiefly looks to the Cape of Good Hope for their future supply; and he contends that, from this region, they may be furnished with corn, flour, and salt beef. Mr. Barrow's evidence respecting the fertility of Southern Africa is quoted; and we do not doubt the capabilities of this district: but much must be effected before this scheme could be realized, and so distant a prospect can afford us little comfort under the immediate inconveniencies which we must suffer by a rupture with America. While we are colonizing and civilizing Africa, we may lose Canada, and starve our West India planters.

Mo-y.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 34. *The Life and Exploits of the ingenious Gentleman, Don Quixote de la Mancha;* containing his fourth Sally, and the fifth Part of his Adventures: written by the Licentiate Alonso Fernandez de Avellaneda, Native of the Town of Tordesillas. With Illustrations and Corrections by the Licentiate Don Isidro Perales y Torres. And now first translated from the Spanish. 3 Vols. 12mo. 13s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

Aware of the oblivion which has long overtaken this performance, the translator has very properly adduced the proof of its authenticity. As a literary curiosity, the arduous attempt of Avellaneda deserves to be commemorated: but the voice of the public has justly declared in favour of his prototype.

In this fourth sally, Don Quixote is exhibited in the character of the 'loveless knight,' and again involved in a series of adventures and perils:—but his absurdities savour too strongly of pure insanity to excite our ridicule; and those of his squire, though abundantly symptomatic

symptomatic of coarseness and simplicity, are not sufficiently characterized by that native shrewdness which gives such comical effect to the original portrait of Sancho Panza. Those persons who are disposed to relish all manner of fictitious narratives will, no doubt, peruse the present imitation with some degree of interest: but others, who can appreciate the graphic painting and the incomparable humour of Cervantes, will yawn or sigh over the pages of his unsuccessful rival.

Two episodes, intitled 'the Wealthy Unfortunate,' and 'the Happy Lovers,' are related with some effect; and they incline us to believe that, if the author had not *aspired* to imitate, he might have attained to celebrity in the department of tragical romance.

The translator, who seems to have executed his task with fidelity and skill, frequently evinces a happy adaptation of the English to the Spanish idiom: but his publishers have disfigured his text, and especially his notes, by slovenly typography, and careless punctuation.—His explanation of a *Calepino* is incorrect: the Dictionary, to which he alludes, is not biographical, like those of Moreri and Bayle, but polyglott and explanatory. **Muir.**

Art. 35. *Miscellanies in Prose and Verse.* By Alexander Molleson. 12mo. pp. 225. Glasgow. 1806.

As the principal essays in this collection, namely, 'Melody the Soul of Music,' the 'Sweets of Society,' and several of the minor compositions, have been formerly submitted to the ordeals of public criticism, we forbear to re-canvass their deserts. The author, indeed, formally impugns our strictures on his rage for simple melodies: but we may now very patiently leave the decision of the question to competent and impartial judges.

We observe, with pleasure, that Mr. Molleson shrinks not from the task of revision and correction; and he will excuse us for reminding him that, though his style be generally easy and simple, it is still deficient in nerve and accuracy. *The face of things* WERE,—WHO *are we to believe?—a considerable parcel* WERE *purchased, &c* are obvious violations of the ordinary rules of grammar; and such lines as the following can claim no kindred with "the Soul of Music:"

'*Far different the Christie's review.*'
'*Thus Campbell, on his shipwreck'd voyage at Ind*'
'*When life in tenderest members feels an wound.*'

In Mr. M.'s epitaph on his mother, though consisting only of ten lines, we perceive much flatness, and some exceptionable phraseology. What is meant, for example, by *glancing the sadd'ning eye?* To *benumb fire* is quite a new figure; and if the *tear burst* at any rate, why put *parting death* to the trouble of *extracting it?*—The Glasgow sons of the clergy may form a very respectable society; and we sincerely hope that their deeds of charity will cover the sins of their poet laureate. Their anniversary dinner in 1802 and 1806 appears to have inspired this author, not with poetry, but with an aukward adaptation of two old Scottish songs to the celebration of the festival.

The short effusion on Highland emigration, and the observations on divulging private letters, on the war with France, and on intoxication, though feeble, and sometimes declamatory, breathe an amiable spirit of benevolence, piety, and loyalty. We fear, however, that Mr. Molleson is not destined to rise above the praise of mediocrity; and

and his time would perhaps be more usefully employed in selecting and compiling from the writings of others, than in publishing his own. Muir.

Art. 36. *La Floresta Española; ó Piezas escogidas en Prosa, &c.* i. e. The Spanish Grove, or select Passages in Prose, extracted from the most celebrated Spanish Authors antient and modern; to which are prefixed Observations on the Origin, Progress, and Decline of Literature in Spain. 12mo. pp. 187. 3s. 6d. Boosey. 1807.

This little volume consists of judicious extracts from Cervantes, Quevedo, Antonio de Solis, Garibay, Lopez de Gomara, Feijoó, Pellicer, Isla, Clavijo, &c. The collection would have been rendered more valuable, if greater attention had been paid to arrange the pieces in such a manner as to meet the progressive improvement of the learner; and had a few explanatory notes been added, particularly to the passages selected from the ingenious but very obscure Quevedo. In its present form, however, this publication will prove an entertaining assistant to the Spanish student.—The prefatory observations contain a rapid, but correct and interesting view of the history of Spanish Literature. J. Man. jun.

Art. 37. *Oddities and Outlines.* By E. M. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 8s. Boards. Carpenter.

The lovers of light reading will be amused with the perusal of these volumes, which consist of thirteen letters, containing observations made in different parts of France and Swisserland; 'diversified,' says the author, 'by the story of an odd and interesting man.' The observations, if not profound, are however entertaining: and the story, though neither intricate nor surprising, possesses interest, and is related with vivacity. O.

Art 38. *An historical and picturesque Guide to the Isle of Wight:* By John Bullar, Author of the Tour round Southampton, &c. Cr. 8vo. pp. 134. 5s. Boards. Baker, Southampton; Ostell, London.

This is a very neat little volume: but we think that the price is too high for a compilation of this sort; and particularly when we ourselves recollect to have received more useful information, for less money, from the common Guide published in the island. O.

Art. 39. *Three Letters (one of which has appeared before) to the Planters and Slave Merchants,* principally on the Subject of Compensation. By Thomas Clarkson, M. A., Author of several Essays on the Subject of the Slave Trade. 8vo. 1s. Phillips and Fardon. 1807.

In these letters, Mr. Clarkson strenuously resists the claim to Compensation urged by the Planters and Slave-Traders in consequence of the Abolition of that commerce. He observes that, if Compensation be due anywhere, it is *due from them to Africa.* As to the Slave-Merchants, he contends that they have no right to such a claim, since they have violated the stipulations of Parliament; and as to the Planters, their case may be very easily decided; for they 'who have treated their Negroes with kindness will have no occasion for compensation, and they, who have treated them otherwise, do not deserve it.' In conclusion, this humane writer offers some excellent advice to Planters respecting the treatment of their Slaves. Moy.

CORRES-

CORRESPONDENCE.

' *To the* MONTHLY REVIEWERS.'

' Dear Friends,

' I Learnt from your Review of last month, "that I was dead." I cannot say I was very sorry, though I had a great respect for the man. Your kind expressions will not be charged with insincerity, for praise is lost upon the defunct. You may as well, by these presents, bring me to life in your next, for I cannot attain my former rank among the living. Your fiat, like a subpœna, musters my friends about me, some in tears, but all terminate with a smile. Others, as I walk the street, cast at me a significant glance, as if surprized to see me *above* ground, and uncertain whether the ghost or the body moves, but a moment determines that the ghost holds its proper place. Three verses, addressed to you, will probably appear in the Gentleman's Magazine, inoffensive as your remark.

' From my Shades at Bennet's Hill,
near Birmingham, Aug. 13, 1807.

' I am, with sincere respect,
' Yours, till a second death.
' W. HUTTON.'

We insert the above with much pleasure; and as we have now a contradiction of the report to which we alluded, under our venerable friend's own hand, we will engage, if he requires it, never again to state an event which we hope is yet distant, till we have in like manner *his own certificate of it*.

Veritas is intitled to our thanks for his communication in reply to *Philo*'s late letter respecting some opinions of the Quakers, and we should print it with great readiness, since it certainly places the matter in a clear light, if we could at present find room for it, and if we did not feel it necessary to abstain from a prolongation of the argument. Reviewers must, in one sense, be

" All things by turns, and nothing long." Mo-y.

The *acknowlegement* from Belfast is accepted with satisfaction. We hope that the writer of it, and every other person, will always have reason for asserting that 'the Genius of candid Criticism has found a sanctuary with the Monthly Reviewers.'—That fair personage has been courted by them for nearly threescore years; and they may surely presume on being on a *tolerable footing* with her, since Time, in such an intimacy as this, produces strength rather than decay.

The remote date of *Glendalloch* precludes us from paying our respects to it.

W. N.'s letter is received, and will be considered when we have leisure to attend to the subject of it, which requires deliberation.

☞ The APPENDIX to this Volume of the Review will be published with the Number for September, on the 1st of October, and will contain a variety of important articles in FOREIGN LITERATURE.

Errors. pp. 339, 344, 362. 392, 406, 402, 426, 432.

THE APPENDIX TO THE FIFTY-THIRD VOLUME OF THE MONTHLY REVIEW ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Nekrolog der Teutschen*, &c.; *i. e.* Necrology of the Germans, for the Nineteenth Century. By FREDERIC SCHLICHTEGROLL. 4 Vols. 8vo. Gotha.

AT the commencement of the last ten years of the 18th century, M. SCHLICHTEGROLL, Professor at the college of Gotha in Saxony, began to publish an annual Necrology; in which he intended to collect memoirs of remarkable men who had died during the preceding year, particularly in his own country, and at the same time to preserve the memory of those whose private virtues and useful lives rendered them worthy of being brought before a larger circle than that in which they had moved. Sincerely applauded by the public, and warmly supported by the friends of departed worth, the author has been enabled to form a gallery of portraits; which, though its pieces vary considerably with regard to intrinsic value and beauty of execution, will be contemplated with pleasure by the philanthropist, and be consulted with advantage by the inquirer into past time.

With the present century, a new series was formed; in which the original plan was so far altered, that in future the work is to be devoted to the memory of Germans exclusively; and the volumes are no longer to be confined to certain years, but will furnish notices of those remarkable or peculiarly ex-

cellent persons, whom Germany has lost in the course of this century, without strictly adhering to chronological order. The nature of such a work, if it be executed with only tolerable skill, will recommend it to a very numerous class of readers; and it must be peculiarly acceptable in a country in which, on account of its great extent, its numerous divisions, and its more numerous provincial publications, biographical memoirs circulated in one part would probably be little known in another. The writer, however, has not trusted alone to the attractions of the matter which he had to communicate to the public, in order to insure a favourable reception of his production, but has evidently bestowed on it respectable talents and laudable pains. In the first volumes of the collection, too much art and a laboured style betrayed the young biographer: but practice and improving taste have remedied these defects as the work proceeded. The different pictures, however, are not more unlike one another in their matter than in their form; though by far the greater number of the memoirs are composed by the editor himself, principally from private accounts, with which the friends of the deceased were ready to furnish him at his request. They bear evident proofs of authenticity, are practical without moralizing, are equally free from bitter censure and fulsome praise. Many are more than mere sketches, though perhaps but a few can claim the rank of biography in the higher sense of that term.

It must be expected that a great part of the interest attached to compositions of this nature is only local, or at most national. The man of business, who, in a more or less extended circle, became by persevering attention and well directed activity the promoter of the happiness of those connected with him;—the scholar, who in possession of eminent talents and extensive knowlege applied them either to practical purposes in an active station, or to improve the knowlege and the taste of his countrymen by productions of his mind, peculiarly adapted to and destined for them;—the popular teacher, who, in the retired abode of a village, produced by his exertions and example happy changes in the morals and enjoyments of those who were intrusted to his care;—all these deserve places in a national gallery, the object of which is as much to reward retired worth, and to encourage the cultivation of the humble virtues of private life, as to transmit the names of distinguished characters to posterity: but their history generally loses its greatest attraction when it goes beyond the limits of *country*, when it is read without patriotism, or the feeling that these departed worthies were connected with us by some closer tie than that of a common species, or when our situation seems

to

to possess too little similarity to theirs. We meet, however, in the volumes before us, with portraits of persons not quite unknown in this country, and of others whose names deserve to be more known than they are. In another point of view, such a work appears even more interesting to the foreigner than to the countrymen of those whose fates and characters it endeavours to depict:—it forms a correct picture of national character and manners;—it furnishes, next to personal intercourse, and in some cases perhaps fully as well, the best materials for just notions of the state of society among a people,—it enables us to take a glance at their domestic circles, their schools and their studies, and the society of their towns and villages;—and it introduces us into the sphere of action among persons of different ranks and employments. Here we see more than the hasty traveller can discover; we see, as it were, not only the effect, but the composition and the different parts of the complicated machine of society; we are informed how men become what they are, and how the national character is created and preserved, or gradually changed. If every nation of Europe furnished a collection of memoirs, on the same plan as that of M. SCHLICHTEGROLL, a comparison between them would surely be highly interesting and useful to the inquirer into the actual state or progress of mankind.

Perhaps many nations would afford a much more entertaining series of characters, and a greater variety of facts, than the Germans; among whom striking features and originality of manner are now but seldom found. The political situation of Germany during a considerable number of years, which almost precluded the possibility of a national character, the uniform system of education in the public schools and universities, and the now almost natural propensity of its inhabitants to adopt the ideas and manners of foreign nations, produce such a mixture of qualities, as prevents any single one from obtaining a powerful ascendency; and deprive both the originals and their portraits of that expression of features, which every where forms the most lasting attraction. To this circumstance, the sameness which readers of the present Necrology will perceive must in a great measure be attributed: but there is another cause of that uniformity. The number of unprofessional men, of whom this biographer gives an account, is very small in comparison with the literati. Among the 41 articles contained in these four volumes, only four or five memoirs relate to persons who were not belonging to the learned professions. This disproportion is undoubtedly in a great measure intentional, but it excites a suspicion of the influence of that corporation spirit which is not seldom discernible among scientific men, parti-

cularly among industrious authors, and which too much confines their attention and esteem to their fellow-labourers in the field of science. The pages of M. SCHLICHTEGROLL are thus rendered much less interesting to the common reader, than they would be if pains were taken to record extraordinary merit, in whatever situation it may have distinguished itself; to pay a more frequent tribute to the artisan who was remarkable in his station, in connection with the eulogy of the professor; and to recount the fate and the benevolent actions of an enterprising and successful merchant, along with those of the counsellor of a prince.

We must, however, highly approve of the attention which the author has paid to a very useful and too often neglected class of men, the learned teachers in the public classical schools. Germany abounds in establishments of this nature, under the name of Gymnasia or Lycæa; and in them a number of men, estimable for their learning and their industry, pass their days, secluded from society by their laborious duties and their narrowed circumstances, and even prevented by want of inclination or of leisure from seeking the scanty honours of authorship. To distinguish those who faithfully and successfully discharged the duties of such important and frequently ungrateful stations, in the temple of national worthies, is a grateful homage to the merit of the dead, and a strong encouragement to the living. Among those to whom Germany is peculiarly indebted for their exertions in the education of youth, and to whom a monument has been erected in the Necrology of the 19th century, we notice Dr. *Gedike*, director of the principal college at Berlin, and M. *Scheller*, professor of the Gymnasium at Brieg. The former has promoted by his writings, and by his personal exertions, a more rational system of instruction than formerly existed in the public schools; and the latter has merited the thanks of all students of the Latin language, particularly by his valuable Dictionary, the last edition of which appeared in 1804 in seven large volumes. The author also records the loss of the venerable *Baldinger*, professor of Medicine in the university of Marburg, who, in point of learning, was probably not excelled by any of the sons of Hippocrates *. It would have added to the value of the memoirs of such men, if a complete list of their works had been given. The notices of Count *Veltheim*, F.R.S. of London, and well known as a mineralogist,—of Dr. *Herz*, an enlight-

* The same University lost in 1802, Prof. *Curtius*, whose name is likewise inserted in the Necrology, and who was an active and very learned member.

ened

ened and benevolent physician of the Jewish nation at Berlin, but a warm opponent of vaccine inoculation,—and of Prof. *Buttner* at Jena, the founder of the Academic Museum at Gottingen, now under the superintendence of *Blumenbach*, and an ingenious inquirer into the relations of languages and nations,—are particularly interesting.

The last mentioned scholar was remarkable for the originality of his ideas and manners. After having served his apprenticeship as a chemist with his father in Wolfenbuttel, a desire of increasing his knowlege led him to foreign countries. He first visited Denmark, Sweden, and Lapland; and then passing over to Scotland, he travelled to London, where he spent some time. Thence he proceeded to Leyden, and pursued his study of Natural History in the same room with Linné. On returning to his native town, he enlarged by the treasures which he had brought with him, a small collection of natural curiosities which had descended to him from one of his ancestors, and which in later years he transferred to the university of Gottingen; whither he removed in 1748, and where he was the first who gave separate lectures on Natural History. His travels had excited in him a particular fondness for languages, in which he endeavoured to trace the descent and the migration of nations. When the Empress Catherine gave orders for a compilation of an universal glossary of tongues, Prof. *Buttner* was consulted, and furnished many important materials. He published little: but his large collection of papers was bequeathed to Prof. *Rudiger* of Halle, who intends to arrange them, and to print the result of his inquiries.—The idea, which others have pursued, that the gypsies derived their origin from an Indian cast, is here said to have originated with him.—He began to publish Tables for the comparison of the written characters of various nations, but they have not been completed.

General *de Benkendorf*, in the service of the Elector of Saxony, was one of the few heroes of the seven years' war who witnessed the commencement of the present century. The account here given of that veteran is extracted principally from his own papers, and contains many interesting circumstances not generally known, relative to some of the most important periods of that war. It was owing to *Benkendorf*'s valour and presence of mind, that on the memorable 18th of June 1757, near Collin, victory was snatched from the hands of the great Frederic of Prussia. In spite of the signal to retreat, which was given by the commanding General, *Benkendorf*, then a Lieutenant Colonel, ordered his men to rush on a weak part of the Prussian line, which they successfully

broke; and inspiring their despairing comrades with new courage, they decided not only the fate of the day, but in a great measure the fate of the war. In allusion to this event, an ingenious politician has remarked, that two men alone had prevented Berlin from becoming as important as Paris; the commander of the Saxon dragoons, *Benkendorf*, and Peter III., who would not listen to the warning of the great Frederic. The following anecdote occurs in the course of this memoir:

'It was necessary to advise the Austrian General *Laudon*, that the Saxon troops had arrived in his neighbourhood with the view of co-operating with him. A captain was charged with the message, and succeeded in escaping by the guidance of a faithful peasant, from the enemy, who infested those parts: but he could not venture to return with the answer of the Austrian commander, on which the whole plan of operation was to depend. A note containing this answer was therefore intrusted to the peasant, who admirably executed his commission, and delivered it in time, though he had been stopped by the Prussians, and examined in the strictest manner, so as even to be stripped to the skin. He had twisted the note round the bottom of his stick, fastened it with some thread, and covered it with a large clod of earth. As soon as he was stopped, he kicked the clod off his stick, and submitted to be searched. When he received permission to pursue his way, he looked for his clod, found it, and reached the place of his destination. To this stratagem, the allies owed the interception of an important waggon train of the king of Prussia, with money and ammunition, the loss of which obliged that monarch to raise the siege of Olmütz, and to abandon Bohemia.'

The General's descriptions of the operations in which he was engaged are simple and modest; and they contain many interesting remarks on the conduct of the Austrian commanders in chief, principally *Daun* and *Lascy*, with the latter of whom *Benkendorf* was often dissatisfied. He preserved his military habits to the close of life, was always fully dressed even in illness, and to the last put on his military boots as soon as he rose in the morning.

In conclusion, we have only farther to remark that this work distinguishes itself from most German books by a pleasing exterior and good paper.

Schw.

ART. II. *Tableau Elémentaire*, &c. *i. e.* an Elementary View of Ornithology, or the Natural History of those Birds which usually occur in France. To which is added a Treatise on the Manner of preserving their Specimens of them, in the formation of Collections, and a Series of forty-one Engravings. By SEBASTIAN GÉRARDIN *(de Mirecourt)*, formerly Canon of the noble and illustrious Chapter of Poussay, Ex-Professor of Natural History in the Central School of the Vosges, &c. &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. and 4to. Atlas. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 2l. 12s. 6d. sewed.

THE professed design of this publication is to instruct French youth in the elementary study of that portion of Ornithology, which is susceptible of exemplification within the limits of their own country; or, to speak more ingenuously, within the circumscribed range of the Vosgian department. M. GE'RARDIN, in his introduction, candidly admits this farther restriction, and pleads for the adoption of his comprehensive title, on the ground of motives which are more allied to prudence than to science. The attention of the public was not, it seems, to be attracted by the modest guise of an Essay on the Ornithology of a district; and a work of such important concoction must be ushered into the world under a pompous and imposing tone. We are, nevertheless, aware of the author's better apology, that the hills and forests of the *ci devant* Lorraine are situated in the direct line of periodical migration observed by many of the birds which inhabit France; and that the species which are natives of the Empire, and unknown in the Vosges, are perhaps not numerous. It is at least certain that the multitudes and diversities of the feathered race, that are yearly sacrificed to the snares of the fowler in the department of the Vosges, exceed those which share a similar fate in any one province of Europe.

M. GE'RARDIN appears to have been born and bred within the precincts of this natural aviary, and to have consorted with the winged tenants of his native woods and hills during the long term of thirty years. His preliminary discourse belies not such pretensions and opportunities, for it explains the general topics of Ornithology in language at once succinct and perspicuous. The five chapters of which it consists were submitted to the revision of the estimable *Daudin*, whose premature death his friends and science will long deplore.—'To me,' says the author, 'he obligingly manifested the kindness of his disposition by the alterations which he inserted, or suggested. May his shade, which now reposes in the tranquil mansions of virtuous spirits, not remain insensible to this public testimony of my sorrow and regret!'—On this introduc-

tion, we have only father to remark that the style is, perhaps, somewhat too homely; that at page viii. we observe the botanical term *Polygala* substituted for *Polygonum*; and that, in the same page, *l'hyver* has been either inadvertently put for *l'été*, or the sentence in which it occurs is at variance with itself.

The arrangement of this work has been chiefly regulated by that of *Cuvier*, in his elementary sketch of the Natural History of Animals: but M. GE'RARDIN has ventured to introduce a few occasional alterations, which were suggested in the course of his public teaching, and which he conceived would facilitate the progress of his pupils.

Among the rarer birds described, are the *Arrian*, the *Vulture of the Pyrénées*, the *White Eagle*, which appears to be a distinct species, and not a variety of the Golden, the *Alpine Crow*, the *Golden Pheasant of China*, now naturalized in France, the *Mountain Heron*, which *Picot la Peyrouse* believed to be peculiar to the Pyrénées, though it has since been found in the Vosgian hills, the *American Stork*, and the *Cape Snipe*.

The Synonymy prefixed to the description is that of *Linné* and *Brisson*. The descriptions are generally minute, distinct, and accurate. On the whole, however, the reader is intitled to expect more copious information relative to the manners and habits of many of the species, than will be found in these results of thirty years' application to the subject, combined with many favourable opportunities. We have also observed a want of precision and of accuracy in some of the author's statements. Singular traits in the history of particular birds, for example, are in one place simply affirmed, without proof, and in another are reported only as alleged or doubtful facts. The pretended foresight of some of the crow tribe, in suspending on the spines of plants their superfluous provision, against a day of scarcity,—the transition of the plumage of the female Golden Pheasant into that of the male,—and the contrivance by which the Reed-Bunting and Sedge-Warbler are supposed to elevate or depress their nests, according to the rise or fall of the water on which they are incumbent,—may be mentioned as instances. In one passage, it is affirmed of the Ruffs and Reeves that they breed in England in great numbers, while in another the author, in consequence of his *researches*, *presumes* that they propagate only in the marshes of Russia and Siberia. The Gannet, too, is represented as stationary on the Bass Island, in the Frith of Edinburgh, whereas it is well known to leave its haunts in autumn, and to return to them in spring.

A *ruse*,

A *ruse de guerre*, practised by the Hedge-Sparrow, is detailed with no ambiguity of evidence:

'When its young are hatched, (I have repeatedly verified the fact, in the course of upwards of thirty years,) if an ememy seems to aim at their lives, the mother has recourse to a stratagem, which is worthy of admiration. She instantly issues forth from her nest, presents herself before the object which she dreads, fluttering, as if wounded, and by this device, which can only be inspired by nature, always admirable in her views, she draws the adversary far from the deposit of her most tender affections, until she believes him to be sufficiently *at fault*, and then with a rapid flight she gladly returns to her young.'

The vocal accomplishments of a starling are thus commemorated in a marginal note:

'When on a visit this winter to one of my friends at Paris, I was not merely surprized but astonished at the loquacity of a starling, which I had not at first perceived, because his cage was placed behind me. This bird articulated a dozen coherent sentences with so much precision, that I fancied that somebody was speaking in the adjoining apartment, for the sound of his voice was really so guttural, that it seemed to come from a distance.

'I was particularly struck with the manner in which he addressed his mistress, on hearing the summons to mass. "Mademoiselle," said he, "don't you hear the bell for mass? Take your prayer-book, and return quickly, to give your little rogue something to eat."

'He enlivens this tattle by two or three flageolet airs, which he whistles so much the more agreeably, that he blends with them many of his own graces, and passes from one to the other by modulations insensibly graduated.'

Some of the principal facts relative to the Cuckoo are extracted, or abridged, from *Lottinger*'s history of that bird: but we find no allusion to Dr. Jenner's valuable and interesting paper on the same subject.

The mode of rearing young partridges, practised by a Carthusian monk of Beauserville, is thus detailed:

'He received in 1769 a brood of partridges, which were only a few days old, and, without the intervention of a hen bird, but with precautions which few have either leisure or patience to take, he kept them warm in a small case, purposely lined with lamb's skin. From this he never permitted them, during their infancy, to get out, except into a warm apartment, on the floor of which he had scattered the larvæ commonly called *ants' eggs*, which he mixed with dry mould, to afford his little favourites the pleasure of scratching it for their food.

'When they had acquired more strength, and the weather was serene, he suffered them to pass a great part of the day in the little garden of his cell, but remanded them to confinement on the approach of evening. Before he brought them into the garden, he took care to scatter grains of millet, which they very readily picked up.

Lastly,

Lastly, he secured for their retreat and pasture, and under covert from the rain, a sheaf of wheat, another of barley, and another of oats.

'So familiar did this amiable little groupe become with their foster-father, that they not only, like a dog, followed him from place to place, but, when he seated himself in his garden, each strove which should first caress him; and they neither dreaded nor shunned the sight of strangers, who courted the acquaintance of this monk on account of his very pleasing society.

'At the end of winter, the pairing season came on, and, with it, the contests of the males; it was remarked, however, that, as education had softened their manners, their combats were less frequent, and less obstinate. When the pairs were matched, the holy man gave them in presents among his friends, and retained only that couple of which the male had invariably manifested towards him the most tender attachment.

'To facilitate the breeding of this privileged pair, before winter, he sowed with wheat a small plot in his garden, whither these birds might retire. There the female laid her eggs; and, during the whole time of incubation, the male incessantly stalked about the little field with an air of anxiety, running at any person, not excepting his hospitable master, if he approached too near, with his head and body erect, his wings half extended, and threatening to fly in the face of any one who should touch the corn in which the objects dearest to his heart were deposited.'

From these particulars, are we not warranted to infer that the partridge might be added to the list of our domestic poultry?—and may we not also be hence incited to express an earnest but unavailing wish, that all monks had resembled the good Carthusian of Beauserville?

M. GE'RARDIN rarely hazards any remarks in the form of a philosophical reflection; and the clumsiness and obscurity of the ensuing sentence may seem to reconcile us to the paucity of his profound speculations:

'The excessively long legs of the *Long-shanks*, which scarcely permit that bird to feed on the ground, appear to be the remains of those ill-assorted and incongruous efforts of the grand projects of Nature, which, in trying the forces of its power, and in sketching the immense plan of the form of beings, chose at first the most lovely, to pass afterward to compositions less symmetrically regular; and which it has allowed to subsist only to give us an idea of its vast projects.'

These expressions, if we have rightly ascertained their amount, would imply that Nature is so vain and childish as to scatter traces of imperfect forms, merely in order to shew what she is capable of effecting, when she chuses to take the trouble of exerting herself.

The term *Atlas* has received such a latitude of acceptation in the French language, that we shall not presume to blame the

the author for applying it to a few sketches of birds and decoys; and such is his accuracy of outline, that we can easily overlook the homely style of his engravings. The atlas likewise furnishes us with divers expedients for entrapping birds, and preparing their skins for being preserved in cabinets. It also exhibits the following towering *flight* of nationality.—'Let us not forget that there is but one Paris in the world, that there exists but one French Empire in the universe, and that all its establishments should be impressed with the seal of its greatness, and suited to the majesty of the name of its august ruler.'

While the author has chiefly aimed at the instruction of youth, his labours may prove of some benefit to the more advanced students in Ornithology.

Muir.

ART. III. *Tableau des Revolutions*, &c.; *i. e.* A Sketch of the Revolutions of the Political System of Europe, since the Close of the Fifteenth Century. By M. F. ANCILLON. 12mo. 3 Vols. Paris, 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 15s. sewed.

THOUGH modest in pretensions, and humble in appearance, this performance comes from a superior hand; we took it up as a work destined for the young, but we found it to be well deserving of attention from those who are far advanced: a remark which will apply more particularly to the able and ingenious preliminary discourse by which this summary of modern history is introduced, and in which the author enumerates the causes whence the wars of later times have arisen. He points out distinctly the sources of these calamities, and examines the plans which have been suggested in order to avert them: but he is not of an Utopian turn, and does not attempt to delude us with the hope of a millennium in human affairs. He represents wars as part of the system to which we belong; and though he laments the evils that attend them, he contends that they are a necessary and even a wholesome ingredient of human discipline.

M. ANCILLON remarks that necessity was the parent of governments; that it explains and legitimates their existence; that the same need has every where produced the same effects; and that the different states, which cover the face of the globe, are to be considered as so many moral persons, reasonable and free like the individuals who compose them. The sovereign power is in each the vital principle,—the soul of the body politic;—it thinks, it wills, it acts, it has rights and duties, and it ought to assert the one and fulfil the other. Sovereigns and states, regarded as moral persons, are equally amenable

ble to justice with individuals; each has his own proper sphere, to which his activity ought to be confined, and which is bounded by those of others; where the liberty of the one finishes, that of the other commences, and their respective properties are alike sacred. There are not two rules of right, one for private men, and another for states. Previously to any idea of conventions between sovereigns, a natural law of nations prevailed which results from the simple fact of a variety of nations subsisting together; and this law traces those obligations to which states may compel each other to conform, if they have the power and the means.

The law unquestionably exists, adds the author, but the exterior guarantee is wanting;—there is no coercive power to force the different states not to deviate, in their relations to each other, from the rules of right. Private men have assured their rights by creating this guarantee, which is the parent of social order, and that which distinguishes a state of civil society from a state of nature. Sovereigns are still in a state of nature, for they have not yet created the guarantee in question; each of them is still the judge and protector of his own rights.

From the want of this general guarantee of their existence and rights, which has ever occasioned their situation to be precarious, sovereigns have united themselves together by means of treaties; and they have exercised the prerogatives of all free and moral persons, those of ceding, acquiring, and exchanging rights:—but these engagements are undertaken and shaken off with little difficulty. As such contracts wanted the aid of the same guarantee in order to ensure their observance, they have given rise to additional violences, and have multiplied offences and complaints; so that it is dubious whether they have on the whole been productive of any benefit. Without doubt, the law of justice condemns these infractions; and its principles require from states as well as from individuals, that they should fulfil their engagements: but these principles, when not backed by a coercive power, exist only in theory,—they never controul practice.

'Here,' says the ingenious author 'a question arises which ought exceedingly to interest the friends of humanity. The state of nature, in which nations in respect to each other still subsist, is a state contrary to the happiness and destination of man; a state in which force only exists in order to violate right with impunity, while it ought only to be exerted in the punishment of its violators. This situation of affairs perpetuates all the misfortunes combined in the single scourge of war; it surrounds with dangers; it feeds jealousies, distrusts, and apprehensions; and it renders endless precautions indispensible. Ought not nations to endeavour to put an end to a state

state of things thus big with evils? Ought they not strongly to desire it? What are the means which seem best calculated to attain this end? Shall it be, as some writers have proposed, by establishing an universal monarchy in Europe?'

This monstrous proposition, which has been asserted and defended by some of the less judicious flatterers of the new French dynasty, is ably combated and refuted by M. ANCILLON. He contends that such an expedient is worse than the evil which it proposes to remedy.

'It is nothing less,' he says, 'than to pass sentence of death on all bodies politic, from an apprehension of the maladies and pains to which they are subject! Where is to be found the body politic which would accede to this measure, and voluntarily commit suicide? The existence of a great number of different independent states, varying in their constitution and laws, is the principle to which Europe owes its pre-eminence in cultivation, industry, and wealth. This diversity has produced useful emulation, and a rich variety of opinions, sentiments, and character, which would all be effaced under the sceptre of one master. National pride, patriotism, and all that is characteristic of a people, would disappear in this amalgamation of heterogeneous elements.—But let us suppose this project of universal monarchy to be practicable;—even though this expedient did not debase the human species, in order to answer the end, means must be found to render it durable. It has always happened that those large empires, which approached nearest to universal monarchies, have been dismembered with great facility. By long and cruel wars, it has been decided to whom should belong the scattered members of those vast bodies; and even during their ephemeral existence, they have rather vegetated than lived: death has often been in the extremities before the heart ceased to beat.'

The author furnishes additional proofs of the excellence of his understanding, and the soundness of his judgment, in his brief but satisfactory refutation of the plans of perpetual peace that have been projected by *St. Pierre* and *Kant*. He clearly demonstrates their impracticability and inefficiency. He observes that the fears and hopes, the passions or calculations, which have produced wars, have been the same in all times and places. The love of glory, a vague disquietude on the part of princes, and the ambitious views of ministers, have caused wars to be declared in monarchies without reason or justice. In mixed aristocracies, the privileged class has promoted wars in order to obtain employment for the people. In republics, demagogues find means to create imaginary and to exaggerate real dangers; they are able to persuade the multitude that a war is necessary when it is gratuitous, and they tempt its avidity, or work upon its pride. Man is always an enemy to quiet: but in no state is this enmity

mity greater than in a democracy, where the human Being is habituated to strong emotions, and where they become as it were a necessary want. Hence the author infers that no changes in the forms of governments will render nations more pacific.

He next examines whether this revolution may not be expected from the progress of reason and morality. He entertains no hope that the moral will ever control and guide the physical force in political societies. It is not by ideas, he remarks, that the conduct of mankind is influenced, but by wants, propensities, and passions; the passions are immortal because they are renewed in each generation, while the objects which inspire and nourish them remain the same. He observes that, in the internal constitutions of governments, nothing is trusted to the principle of virtue, but checks are interposed to prevent (as far as may be) the abuse of power, and to confine it within its legitimate bounds.—As a consequence from these results, he admits that states must continue to cherish reciprocal jealousy; that in their external relations these feelings must prevail; that any power which is able to do us harm, whether by its superior force or geographical position, is our natural enemy; and that a power which can do us no injury, but which is able to annoy our enemy, is our natural ally. On these simple principles, the whole of politics turns, and they have been the rule of conduct in all times;—a sort of instinct suggested them, and caused them to be observed long before reason reduced them to the shape of propositions.

The power of a nation is here represented as founded on its wealth; which the author defines to be the excess of its produce above what it consumes, the surplus of its receipt above its expenditure. In porportion to this excess are its disposeable means, in order to assert its independence and maintain its honor. Riches grow out of labour; and labour consists in the greatest activity, conformably to the best methods, in the pursuits of agriculture, the arts, and commerce. These sources of riches will be more or less abundant, according to the degree in which the law provides for the freedom of individuals and the security of property; to that in which religion enlightens the mind and improves the morals, with the least expence of time and revenue; and to that in which science, by studying nature, is enabled to facilitate the modes of satisfying the wants and administering to the pleasures of mankind.—Nothing, as M. Ancillon properly observes, can be less warrantable than to infer that the strength of a state is in proportion to the abundance of its means. We must take into the account its geographical position, moral causes, and even a variety of casualties.

Having

Having shewn on what the energies of a state principally depend, the writer asserts that though princes and people, ministers and demagogues, have unnecessarily multiplied wars, yet wars, in themselves considered, are essentially owing to the state of nature in which nations remain in respect to each other. Unjust wars arise from the want of a general guarantee, while those that are just are a legitimate use of force in order to make right triumph.

After having vindicated his views from the imputations which the uncandid alone would try to fix on them, M. ANCILLON states that, in the system of human affairs, wars are analogous to many other means which nature employs for setting man to labour, and in this manner to put all his powers in activity. Pain, misfortune, and want are our real masters. Volcanoes, inundations, earthquakes, hurricanes, and storms destroy the fruits of man's labour, and force him to fresh exertions. A long peace perfects arts and talents: but war, giving a strong impulse to the mind, incites men to create, invent, and discover: without the latter cause, we should want the force which produces; without the other, the time and labour which complete and finish. In the opulence which peace creates, the mind becomes enervated, and character degenerates; whereas amid the ills that follow in the train of war, the manly and difficult virtues open and flourish; and but for their excitements, courage, patience, firmness, and contempt of death would be unknown among men. Even those who mix not in combat must submit to privations and to sacrifices: while the dangers of the state rouse and strengthen sentiments of public spirit and patriotism.

Such are the views of human affairs entertained by this writer. If they be not splendid in theory nor flattering to the fancy, it will be difficult to deny that they are supported by reason, and confirmed by facts.—Equal to the ingenuity and solidity which distinguish this discourse, are the judicious selections and able statements which constitute the summary now before us.

It is premised that the object of this work is to set forth the origin, the growth, and the variations in the political system, which the different states of Europe have pursued since the close of the fifteenth century, in order to acquire or preserve an independent existence, by opposing force to force, and power to power. For this purpose, the author divides the period into three epochs. The first embraces the time which intervened between the wars of Charles VIII. in Italy, and the commencement of the thirty years' war: the second, that between the beginning of the latter event and the death of Louis XIV.;

and the third takes in the space which connects that point with the convocation of the States General by Louis XVI.—In some measure to exemplify the manner of this writer, we shall abstract a part of his account of one of the most remarkable events in modern history, the league of Cambray.

'Julius II. a Genoese by birth, had many brilliant qualities, but none of the virtues of his profession. More warlike than pacific, he was formed to conceive and execute vast projects, and had no turn for the peaceable and tranquil life of a priest. He did not want art and dissimulation, but his courage made him prefer open methods and arduous schemes. Having become Pope at a period when the spiritual power had been weakened, he discerned the necessity of extending the basis of his temporal power. Of this object Julius never lost sight; and in all his proceedings through the whole course of his life, his sole aim was to become the first Italian potentate.

'Provoked to see his country by turns the domain of the French, of the Spaniards, and of the Germans. all of whom he designated as barbarians, he proposed to chase them beyond the mountains, and to destroy them by setting them against each other: but he was first desirous of employing them to humble the pride of Venice, and of raising himself at the expence of this power, which had thwarted his schemes in the north. He formed a most daring plan, but it was justified by the event. It seemed an impossibility to unite Maximilian, Louis XII. and Ferdinand, who were rivals and enemies, in opposition to Venice, as it was known that they had much more reason to dread each other than that state. Julius might well have apprehended that, if they succeeded, they would divide the *terra firma* between them, and thus become more strongly established in Italy. This apprehension was disregarded by him; he found the means of uniting together the heterogeneous elements; and the league was signed at Cambray. Europe saw with astonishment these monarchs, who were natural enemies of each other, lay aside their animosities, in order to assail a power which could be no object of jealousy to either of them. Julius, whom age seemed only to render more violent, felt by anticipation the pleasure of being avenged for some trifling offences given to him by the senate; and he enjoyed already in idea the reduction of the cities of Romagna, which the peace of Cambray secured to him. Maximilian was desirous of resenting the affront offered to him by these proud republicans, who refused him a passage through their state when he went to Rome to be crowned. He regarded already as his own the chief cities of the *terra firma*. Ferdinand hoped to recover the five ports which the Venetians retained in Naples. Louis XII. was aware of the succours which they had given to the king of Arragon for the reduction of Naples, and calculated on having restored to him the cities which he ceded after the conquest of Milan.'

We are sorry that our limits will not permit us to state the author's account of the means taken by these sage republicans

cans to resist and dissipate the storm, and the successful issue of most of the hardy plans of the military Pontiff.—This learned and philosophical summary is, in fact, less adapted for tyros than for proficients.

ART. IV. *Histoire de France*, &c. The History of France from the Revolution in 1789; collected from cotemporary Memorials and Manuscripts lodged in the civil and Military Repositories. By F. E TOULONGEON. Vol. V. 8vo. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe.

THE character of fairness, diligence, and perspicuity which we were induced to assign to the former volumes of this work, belongs in an equal degree to the present; which embraces what the author denominates the ninth and tenth epochs of the Revolution. The first of these terminates with the extinction of the Jacobins as an existing deliberative body, and the second ends with the dissolution of the National Convention.

History perhaps offers nothing of greater interest than descriptions of the state of the public mind in a country, subsequently to any great crisis. A specimen or two of those which are sketched by this author will prove instructive, while they serve to display the character of his performance.

'*Robespierre* and his accomplices, and seventy-one members of the commonalty of Paris, having been guillotined, the axe of the executioner was laid down. This terrible hecatomb appeased for a moment the manes of so many victims: but solicitude and dread survived terror, apprehension mixed with general congratulation, anxiety interfered with enjoyment, and the victors durst not decree to themselves the honors of triumph.

'Though the criminals were annihilated, their system was still preserved. Their successors dared not decree that the revolutionary regimen was at an end; its existence, on the contrary, was recognized; and the 9th Thermidor (27th of July) was for a long time solely the epoch of the qualification of that system. The actors in the transaction of that day soon found themselves pressed by two opposing parties; and they feared to connect themselves with either: indeed, such an alliance would have proved their destruction. A dread of the old *regime* balanced the terror which the new had generated. They durst not abolish the tribunal of blood, the horrible engine of the vanquished faction. Three months after the fall of *Robespierre*, the ashes of *Marat* were solemnly lodged in the Pantheon by the side of those of *Rousseau*; and those of *Mirabeau* were ignominiously withdrawn from their place. The power of the popular societies was still formidable, and balanced that of the Convention. The plans of the opposing parties were similar: each resisted the establishment of a system of government,—the anarchists, because they

subsisted by confusion,—and the emissaries of the throne, because they thought that it would lead to the restoration of royalty.

'The Jacobin anarchists, particularly the leaders among them, were no longer fanatics for liberty; enthusiasm was now confined to the dregs of the party; and they were never called into action but in case of necessity. All those who were capable of reflection acted the parts of emissaries to different factions, or from personal views. These men were still powerful, and objects of apprehension to those who now governed in the Convention.'

Detailing the disgraceful and unwarrantable treatment of *La Fayette* by the Court of Vienna, and the generous attempt to rescue him from illegal confinement by two enterprizing young strangers, the author thus proceeds:

'Some time afterward, in the midst of the silence and general forgetfulness which had taken place with respect to this outrage, the voice of reason and humanity raised itself in the English Parliament.

'A warrior-enemy, General Fitzpatrick, proposed in the Lower House an address to the King, requesting him to interpose his mediation with the Emperor of Germany, in order to obtain the liberation of the prisoners of Olmütz. He painted in lively and striking colours the sufferings of the three captives, and the magnanimous behaviour of their wives, who solicited and obtained permission to share in the bondage of their husbands. Soon after Madame *La Fayette* had taken up her residence in her husband's dungeon, her declining health required that she should have the benefit of fresh air; and she was put to the cruel alternative of continuing in her dreary abode under the pressure of her malady, or of quitting the sight of her husband for ever. She did not for a moment hesitate. She readily risqued her life.

'The motion of the generous Englishman made a strong impression; and mistaken policy would have yielded to humanity, had not Pitt, with his state-reasons, checked the swelling current. It was in vain that Fox assailed, combatted, and confounded the ministerial arguments, with weapons which Demosthenes could not have employed more victoriously. His speech, a *chef d'œuvre* of sentimental logic, disclosed and confirmed authentic facts which were not then generally known.—The motion did not succeed; but Europe was informed of it, and the proceeding could not fail to reach the ears of the oppressors.'

The next lines record in our opinion the fairest and most enviable triumph of *Bonaparte*; a triumph of which he would have been deprived, had the British ministry been alive to the calls of humanity, or had conformed to the clearest suggestions of policy: 'Three years (says the writer) of farther captivity elapsed, till victory and *Bonaparte* threw open the doors of the dungeon of Olmütz.'—The whole of Mr. Fox's speech on this occasion is inserted in an appendix.

In

In referring to the establishment of the Directorial Government, M. TOULONGEON states that it met with no opposition except in La Vendée.

'The experience of the inconveniences of anarchy (he observes) insured a good reception to the first plan of public order that was proposed. The popular favour assisted the movements of the too complicated new machine. National pride had adopted a republic; and so signal had been the exploits of the armies since the new denomination had been assumed, that every Frenchman put in his claim for a share in the glory which his country had earned, and was proud of the title of a citizen and a republican. The resistance of interest, the opposition of opinion, the murmurs of regret, all yielded to the general impulse. Calculators and reasoners abandoned their former opinions; and all were ready to renounce their errors, in order to unite in the general wish.

'France became altogether republican, and for a time the revolution appeared to be completed. This was the case as far as respected the people; and though the government has undergone subsequent revolutions, the people have borne no part in them. Experience had taught each faction that it was easy to put the people in motion: but, the impulse once given, it had been felt how difficult it was to direct it, and still more arduous to stop its course. It had been found to be a terrible weapon, and that it was liable to burst in the hands which wielded it. The people themselves began to be weary of their omnipotence, and even of the exercise of their sovereignty: while the most active of the under agents [illegible] discovered that the promises of their chiefs were vain. It hence [illegible]ned that, in future revolutions, the people were neither invited, nor did they offer themselves to take a share in them. The revolution continued, but it was no longer national, it was that of parties. Fatigued, and terrified with command, the people renounced their pretensions to it, and resigned themselves to peaceable submission; preferring it to perilous liberty, to that liberty of which their leaders, by cruel and criminal management, had contrived to shew them only the hideous and deformed counterfeit, in order to divert their attention from the true divinity which they invoked, and which they knew only by name.

'In the annals of the world, this epoch of the French Revolution will be written in characters of blood: but what man, feeling in any degree the dignity of his nature, will not reflect on it with regret, as displaying the spring made by a mighty, enlightened, and generous nation towards liberty, serving only to rivet its chains during the repose of its exhaustion, and forming an unanswerable objection to attempts of a similar kind in future. What wise and considerate man will hereafter dare to say to any nation of the globe, "Arise, shake off your chains," if the effect of this effort is only to be found in a violent crisis, and subsequent inaction? What people will in future dare to take this course? What potentate will hereafter fear to aggravate a yoke which it is thus dangerous to break? The peasants of the antient continent must be content to feed on the pro-

duce of the soil, under the former shepherds of the people, and under the guardianship of their agents.

'Even at this period, namely the close of the convention, the revolution reckoned among its partisans all the men of cultivated understandings throughout Europe, whose private interests were not opposed by it. Courts dreaded it, the clergy pronounced anathemas against it, the privileged classes laboured to keep it at a distance, and great proprietors and rich merchants viewed it with suspicion; while the people every where, whether more or less instructed, regarded it as favourable to their interests, but hesitated on account of the price which it would cost. Without the faults and crimes of the several assemblies, it is probable that the example would have been imitated by every European state: but these gave new force to the old interests. The supporters of the revolution were called to account for all the mischief which it had occasioned, and for the good which it had not but might have effected. Passive and mute obedience, whether from a desire of quiet or through lassitude, or from a regard to interest, now became general; and the name of Patriot grew to be a reproach, and to be as much shunned as that of Jacobin. Did any inveigh against or regret the change, the answer was, "Recollect the reign of terror." The word Liberty became a term of ridicule, and its sincere partisans were regarded as visionaries deserving rather pity than punishment.'

Though something is here to be laid to the account of the French national character, still it must be owned that the event of the struggle made in this country in the seventeenth century is little more encouraging to the cause of humanity, than the recent efforts of our neighbours. If we do not view the fortunes of mankind through a medium quite so gloomy as that which is here held up, we cannot help thinking that these reflections merit the serious consideration of the well meaning part of those who profess to regard the authors of pernicious public measures as their best friends, by hastening the crisis which is to be the date of their deliverance. These suggestions appear to us to be calculated to dissipate this dangerous delusion, to make us value those rights of which we are in the possession, and oppose with all our energies any encroachments on them that may be attempted.

Jo.

ART. V. *An Essay on the Diseases incident to Indian Seamen, or Lascars, on long Voyages.* By WILLIAM HUNTER, A.M., Member of the Asiatic Society of Calcutta, Surgeon to the Company's Marine Establishment in Bengal, &c. &c. Folio. pp. 236. Printed at the Company's Press at Calcutta. 1804.

IN the year 1801, some of the outward bound Indiamen suffered an unusual mortality among the Lascars who composed part of their crews; and the disease with which they

were attacked, besides its fatal tendency, exhibited a new combination of symptoms, which had not been previously noticed by any medical writer. Under these circumstances, Mr. HUNTER, in consequence of his official situation, was required to investigate the nature of the disease, and, if possible, to point out some method for its prevention and cure. The result of his inquiries forms the basis of the valuable work now before us: which consists of a short essay that may be considered as the abstract of all the information which he obtained from a variety of sources; of a number of appendices, composed of the original documents furnished by the different gentlemen under whose inspection the disease made its appearance; and also of an account of some other complaints, to which it seemed to bear an analogy. We cannot convey to our readers a better idea of the nature of the disease, than by presenting them with the following statement as composed by Mr. HUNTER himself:

'The disease commenced with œdematous swelling of the feet, accompanied with stiffness and numbness of the joints. These two symptoms appear to have been so nearly simultaneous, that it is difficult to say which of them preceded the other. In some instances, an aversion from motion was observable for a day or two, before the appearance of those complaints; in others the men continued their usual exercise and duty, while the swelling was confined to the feet. But it rapidly extended upwards, occupying the legs and thighs. When it reached the abdomen, it caused severe dyspnœa, which increased to such a degree, that the patient seldom survived one day after the distention had extended as high as the stomach.

'In one instance, the fatal dyspnœa was not attended with any perceptible swelling.

'Death was preceded by pain at the *scrobiculus cordis*, increased by pressure; and about this time, many had bilious vomitings.

'The face was swelled and bloated. Thirst great during the whole disease, but much increased a little before death. Urine scanty, and voided with difficulty. They were in general costive. No account is given of the state of the appetite, nor of the pulse.

'None of the cases exhibited any swelling, sponginess, or bleeding of the gums: or livid spots, or sores, that could be deemed scorbutic, in the limbs or any part of the body. Some, indeed, of the crew of the *Arran* had sores, proceeding from an itchy or herpetic affection: but those appear to have rather served as a salutary drain, than to have formed a part of the disease.

'The whole duration of the complaint, from the first seizure to its fatal termination, was often comprized within the space of two days; and it appears to have seldom exceeded twenty.

'In the only dissection which was made of the dead, a small quantity of water was found in the cavity of the abdomen; and the cellular substance, all over the body, was greatly distended with the same fluid. The cavities of the chest, and of the pericardium, did

not contain more than the usual quantity. The viscera of the thorax and abdomen were perfectly sound.'

The cause of the disease is involved in much obscurity. Although the seamen, who suffered from it, were exposed to some of the circumstances which contribute to the production of scurvy, yet it does not appear that they existed in an extreme degree; and although the nature of their diet, and other causes inducing debility, might aggravate the symptoms, we apprehend that they would not be sufficient for their production. By the supposed causes of the disease, and many of its leading symptoms, some of the practitioners were induced to regard it as a modification of scurvy; while Mr. HUNTER himself, and others of his correspondents, considered it as of an essentially different nature. The affection of the mouth, and the peculiar blotches on the skin, which are considered as so strongly characteristic of scurvy, were either altogether absent, or existed only in a slight degree; and the citric acid seemed to have no specific operation in its cure. On the whole, we must conclude that, if the disease was scurvy, it was much modified by the constitution and habits of the patients.

We have also an interesting account of an affection which seems to be endemic in Ceylon, called by the natives *Beriberi*, and which strongly resembles the disease that prevailed among the Lascars. It attacks the Europeans, as well as the inhabitants of the island, and was a frequent occurrence among the British troops stationed at Candy and Trincomalie. The same difference of opinion prevails with respect to the relation which this disease bears to scurvy, as in the former instance.

The practical directions, which are laid down by the author for the management of the Lascars, are judicious, and highly deserving of attention; and the information contained in the volume must be regarded as peculiarly important to those who are engaged in this department of practice.

Bos.

ART. VI. *Chimie appliquée aux Arts.* *Par* M. J. A. CHAPTAL, &c. &c. 8vo. 4 Vols. Paris. 1807. Imported by De Bosse. Price 2l. 2s.

ART. VII. *Chemistry applied to Arts and Manufactures.* By M. J. A. CHAPTAL, Member and Treasurer of the French Senate, Grand Officer of the Legion of Honour, &c. (Translated from the French.) 8vo. 4 Vols. 1l. 16s. Boards. R. Phillips.

MANY circumstances have occurred, and still subsist, which must operate powerfully in withdrawing the great bulk of the French people from the cultivation of the arts of peace: yet

yet it appears that their men of science are more in the habit of devoting their talents to objects of practical utility, than the philosophers of this country; and we accordingly find that improvements of the greatest importance are every day suggested by the French, but that the English derive the principal benefit from them. This remark is more particularly applicable to the different manufactures which depend on chemical principles; for in this branch the active invention of our neighbours has been continually making discoveries, which the steady industry of our own countrymen has enabled them to turn to advantage. M. CHAPTAL, the author of the volumes before us, is recognized not only as classing among the first scientific chemists of France, but as one who has more especially applied his knowlege to the direct purposes of utility; and he must accordingly be considered as eminently qualified for the undertaking which he has here imposed on himself.

The work commences with a preliminary discourse of considerable length; in which the advantages that may be derived from chemistry by its application to the arts of life, are strongly yet justly set forth. The author, however, very properly warns us against an undue fondness for novelty, and remarks that the object and situation of the philosopher are essentially different from those of the manufacturer. After some judicious and liberal observations on the policy by which a nation ought to be guided in its attempts to establish manufactures of different kinds, he refers to his own publication, and displays the views which he had in its composition. With respect to the plan on which a performance of this kind may be conducted, he suggests that we may either separately describe each different operation, and at the same time elucidate the principles on which it is built, or we may begin by stating the general principles of the science, and afterward describe the different applications of them that are made. M. CHAPTAL prefers the latter method, from regarding it as the least likely to produce repetition; and also as that in which the subjects present themselves the most naturally to the mind, and are the most easily recollected. In conformity with this idea, he distributes his materials into three grand divisions, under the titles of *Chemical Action*, *the Bodies on which Chemical Action is exercised*, and *the Mixture and Combination of Bodies*.

After some general remarks on Chemical Action, to which, in conformity with the practice of most of the continental philosophers, the author appropriates the name of *Affinity*, he proceeds to investigate the general laws by which this peculiar power is characterized. He is here naturally led to recur to the theory that has been lately advanced by M. *Berthollet*; and

acknowleging the accuracy and acuteness of observation which it displays, he coincides in the fundamental principle, 'that the result of a decomposition is proportioned not only to the energy of the affinity of the decomposing body, but to the quantity of this same body.' In examining the operations of affinity, we find a variety of causes by which it is counteracted or modified; and with these it is necessary to become acquainted, before we estimate the effect of any chemical combination. These modifying circumstances accordingly pass under our review, and the relation is pointed out which they bear to the absolute effects of chemical action. The one which prevails most universally, and which most powerfully counteracts the operations of affinity, is cohesion; and a great number of the operations of the chemist and the manufacturer are immediately directed to dissolve the union that is produced by it. This topic forms the subject of a long chapter, in which are described the mechanical operations that are employed for this purpose, the different methods of dissolving bodies, and the various ways of applying heat to them. The subject of Caloric gives rise to the description of furnaces, with the principles on which they are constructed, the processes of distillation and evaporation, the instruments that have been employed for measuring heat, and other similar topics; with which the first division of the work concludes.

Part II., which gives an account of the bodies on which chemical action is exercised, consists of a brief review of all the different subjects of chemical operation. They are arranged under five heads, *the Gaseous Fluids*, *the Mineral Part of our Planet*, *Combustible Substances*, *Substances extracted from the Animal and Vegetable Kingdoms*, and *Acids*. This division, which extends nearly to one third of the whole performance, may be considered as a general manual of chemistry; and we think that it is not sufficiently appropriate to the express object of M. CHAPTAL's undertaking. In course, it contains a great portion of valuable information, but much of it has only a very slight connection with any of the arts or manufactures; and we find no just proportion in the degree of attention which is paid to the different parts of the subject. We meet with a section on Respiration, which certainly bears little relation to the author's main object of the work; and the properties of the newly discovered earths and metals, such as Zircon, Glaucine, Tellurium, Chrome, &c. are detailed with at least as much minuteness as those of the most general utility in the arts of life. We distinguish, however, some sections in this part of the work, which are more appropriate, and on that account more interesting. The methods that have been

been employed for obtaining soda, by the decomposition of sea-salt, are given at some length; and it appears that a manufacture of this kind, in which the decomposition is effected by means of litharge, is at this time advantageously carried on by the author, on a scale of considerable magnitude, at Montpellier. The process is well known in this country, but we believe that it has not been found sufficiently profitable. M. CHAPTAL's account of the different ores of iron, and the method of working them, is interesting: though we think that the nature of the publication required him to enter more into the minute details of the operations.

Although we have admitted that this part of the work contains a considerable portion of valuable knowlege, we are obliged to confess that, on some occasions, the author has manifested a degree of inaccuracy in his statements which we did not expect from him. In treating of combustion, he informs us that this term, in its 'rigorous' acceptation, embraces 'every operation which produces the combination and fixation of oxygen;' and he takes it for granted that, where-ever oxygen enters into any new combination, the same proportional quantity of heat and light must be evolved, though it may be done so gradually as not to affect our senses.

'In numerous instances * in which light and heat fail to impress our senses, we are by no means authorized to reject their existence, or to deny their production: it is a fact, that oxygen gas cannot enter into combination without liberating a portion of the caloric which held it in the form of gas. If the combustion of a certain weight of iron be effected by a sufficient quantity of oxygen, in the interval of a minute, or in the space of a month, the effect will be the same: but, in the first case, the combustion will be accompanied by a very perceptible disengagement of heat and light; whilst, in the second, the quantity of heat and light, being extended through all the instants of a very long interval, will not produce, at any time, an impression capable of affecting our senses.'

This is certainly a very vague account of an operation, which has engaged so large a share of the attention of the chemical philosopher.—Among the instances of less important inaccuracy, we may notice that the author attributes to his countryman, *Berthollet*, the discovery of the power that charcoal possesses of preventing water from becoming putrid; a discovery which, we apprehend, is due to *Lowitz*.—This is a kind of mistake not uncommon among the French.

Volume III. commences with the different acids, and merits the same character as the former parts.—While many of

* We quote from the translation.

its

its articles are instructive and interesting, others have little application to the arts or manufactures, and yet they occupy nearly as much space as those that are more important. The description of the method of procuring sulphuric acid is highly deserving of attention. This substance is procured either by distillation, from compounds in which it exists ready-formed, or by processes in which sulphur is combined with oxygen by means of combustion. This last is the method usually employed, and M. CHAPTAL enters fully into both the theory and the practice of it. In the prosecution of the subject, he is led to discuss the question, whether the oxygenated muriatic acid possesses the power of imparting its oxygen to sulphur, and of converting it into sulphuric acid; a point on which the opinions of the most eminent chemists have been completely at variance. It would appear, from his own experiments, that sulphuric acid may be formed, but in an extremely small quantity. The following propositions are laid down, as containing the fundamental principles of all the processes for the formation of the acid:

'1st, That the very variable proportions of the oxygen gas which may be employed in the combustion of a determinate portion of sulphur, may more or less accelerate the combustion, without always sensibly augmenting the production of sulphuric acid.

'2d, That the bodies which have oxygen for their base, and which give it up at a moderate heat, as some metallic oxydes do, assist combustion more or less, without producing sulphuric acid.

'3d, That the substances which, when placed in contact with sulphur in combustion, give up to it their oxygen, and by producing a violent heat, are the only ones which can convert sulphur into sulphuric acid.'

In the chapter on acids, we have some useful remarks respecting the manufacture of vinegar; and six 'conditions' are enumerated, which are regarded as indispensible for its formation. These are the presence of a quantity of vegeto-animal matter, the existence of a spirituous principle, the contact of air, a proper degree of heat, a ferment, and a slight agitation.

We now come to the third grand division of the work, on the Combination of Bodies with each other. The author does not seem to have precisely adhered to the distinction between the subjects of his second and third parts; the acids, although compound bodies, being placed in the second part. In Part III. are described the mixtures of the different earths as employed in pottery, the metallic alloys and oxids, the combinations into which sulphur enters, the substances of which the acids or the alkalies form a component part, those that are employed in dyeing, and the materials which excite fermentation. Under these

these different heads, are arranged many of the most important arts and manufactures which administer to the comforts and elegancies of life; and we find, in general, a clear account both of the principles on which the different processes are established, and of the arrangements which are formed for their execution. This division of M. CHAPTAL's performance is much more consonant to his title-page than the two former, and is that to which they must, for the most part, be considered as subservient and introductory.

We meet with a very interesting detail of the manufacture of alum. The ore from which this substance is generally procured does not contain it ready-formed, nor indeed even the sulphuric acid, but only sulphur and alumine. The principal object in the process is to combine a quantity of oxygen with the sulphur, by which means it is converted into sulphuric acid, which then acts on the clay. The oxygen is supplied from the decomposition of air and water; and it is in the proper regulation of the air, water, and heat, that the art of aluminization consists.—It appears that alum has been lately formed in France without the assistance of what are called the ores of alum; the author has himself been concerned in the manufacture; and from his mode of speaking on the subject, it may be inferred that it proved successful. The process consists in uniting clay with different neutral salts that contain potash, and adding to the compound a quantity of sulphuric acid. The sulphates and nitrates of potash have both been employed in the operation.

Gunpowder is now an article of so much importance, and the French powder has so often been stated to be superior to our preparations, that we shall quote M. CHAPTAL's section on this subject, though it is rather long:

'*On the Use of Saltpetre in the Composition of Gunpowder.*

'Gunpowder is formed by the accurate mixture of saltpetre, charcoal, and sulphur; and the different qualities of this powder depend on the proportions between the constituent principles, the purity of the materials, and the accuracy with which they are triturated and mixed together.

'The following are the results of the numerous experiments which I made in the celebrated powder manufacture at Grenelle.

'1. The proportion of saltpetre ought to be at least about 75 per cent.

'2. The proportions which produce the best gunpowder are 77 saltpetre, 14 charcoal, and 9 sulphur.

'The proportions most generally employed, are

76 saltpetre
12 charcoal
12 sulphur.

'3. The

'3. The proportion of sulphur may be diminished, or even omitted: but in this last case the powder is very porous, not sufficiently consistent, and is injured by carriage.

'When the proportion of sulphur is diminished, it is necessary to triturate the other materials with greater care. I have obtained very good powder by employing 3 per cent. of sulphur.

'The powder for ordnance requires less sulphur than the finer kinds.

'Charcoal of white wood is employed in the making of powder, such as that of the poplar, willow, hazel, &c. It is made of the young branches of only two or three years growth.

'The charcoal ought to be used immediately after being made, as it absorbs on exposure to the atmosphere, 20 or 25 per cent. of air and water, which injures its quality.

'A very great difference is perceivable between the charcoal prepared in trenches and that prepared in the open air; the first is lighter, less compact, and is preferred for the composition of gunpowder.

'All the powder manufactured in France is prepared by the trituration of the three materials, in mills furnished with an apparatus adapted to this purpose; and the mechanism of which is so well known as to render a particular description of it unnecessary. We shall at present, therefore, confine ourselves to give a succinct idea of the principal operations executed in the powder manufactures.

'In the composition of the powder employed by miners, there is [are] 13 pounds of saltpetre, 4 of sulphur, and 3 of charcoal.

'In the fine powder used in war, 15 pounds of saltpetre, 2 pounds 8 ounces of sulphur, and 2 pounds 8 ounces of charcoal.

'A single pestle is appropriated to each 20 pounds of the mixture.

'The materials are first stirred with a stick, and a small portion of water added to them, in order to prevent the volatilization of the sulphur and charcoal.

'The pounding usually continues twenty one hours; the main velocity of the pestles is about 55 strokes in a minute; their weight is 80 pounds; and they rise and fall to the height of a foot.

'It is removed from one mortar to another every hour, during the three first hours; and afterwards every three hours. At each change, care is taken to preserve the necessary humidity, in order that the paste may retain its coherence. When the paste is sufficiently formed, the mixture perfect, and the division complete, it is taken out of the mortars, and deposited in the graining house.

'As the paste retains a certain degree of humidity, it does not admit of granulation immediately on being brought from the mill; and is therefore allowed to remain two or three days in the graining-house before this operation commences.

'The granulation is performed by putting the dried matter into a sieve, of which the holes are in proportion to the size we wish to give to the grains. It is then covered with a piece of hard wood, from seven to eight inches in diameter by two in thickness, to which a rotatory motion is given, by moving the sieve upon a bar placed across a large vessel, into which the grains fall: that which is intended

tended to be formed into minute grains, is usually prepared by first bruising it in a sieve, the holes of which are three lines in diameter.

'They afterwards form the different kinds of grains, such as the *war-grain* for cannon, the *musket grain*, the *fine grain* for hunters, and the *superfine grain* for pistols, &c. by employing sieves, having holes of different diameters.

'The powder which remains, after the separation of the grains, is moistened and again beaten for two or three hours.

'When the granulation is finished, it is dried in the open air by spreading it on tables covered with linen cloths. It is turned several times a day, and allowed to remain in this situation until it be completely dry.

'In the preparation of *hunters' powder*, the paste is only exposed to the air until it loses part of its humidity, and in this state 150 pounds of it is [are] put into casks which revolve round their axis, [axes] and which are crossed by four bars parallel to the axis. The slow and continued motion thus communicated to them, produces a degree of friction which destroys the asperities of grains, and imparts to them a beautiful lustre.

'After having polished this powder, it is exposed until perfectly dry.

'It is then agitated in a sieve, in order to free it from any dust which may adhere to the surface of the grains.

'This last operation is known among workmen under the name of *brushing*.

'The same learned men commissioned by the government, who taught our manufacturers the prompt and economic method of purifying saltpetre, at the same time turned their attention to the improvement of those processes employed in the formation of gunpowder. The success of their labours was so great, that in the space of few months 16 millions lbs. of saltpetre was [were] produced in France; to such perfection indeed had they brought this art, that in the powder works at Grenelle alone, 34 thousand pounds were fabricated daily.

'It is to M. Carny in particular that France owes the improved methods of making gunpowder; I have myself introduced some useful alterations in the different operations, but to M. Carny must be solely attributed the merit of the discovery.

'We may reduce to three operations, every thing that is interesting in this new method of preparing gunpowder.

'1. Pounding and sifting the materials.

'2. Producing an accurate division and intimate mixture in the casks.

'3. Giving to the mixture the requisite degree of consistence, and granulating the powder.

'The pulverization or grinding of the materials, is performed separately by means of two bronze mill-stones running on the two extremities of the same axis, and turning in a trough.

'The same machinery turns at the same time four sieves, through which the pounded substance is passed in proportion as it is taken from the trough.

'It

'It is necessary that the sulphur should be finely pulverized. The same degree of accuracy is not required in respect to the charcoal and the saltpetre; they ought, however, to be carefully dried before being subjected to this operation.

'When the different materials have been sufficiently pulverized, they are mixed together in the requisite proportions, and put into casks, or vats, 32 inches in length, by 22 in width.

'These vats are solidly constructed of thick oak planks, and an opening made in one of their bottoms about six inches square, to which a cover is adapted in order to render it more convenient to put in and remove the materials. An iron axis covered with wood runs through the longitudinal diameter of these vessels; this axis, which projects at the two extremities, rests upon a wooden frame, and freely revolves upon itself; to the two extremities are adapted handles, in order to move the cask. Into each of these vessels are put 75 pounds of the composition; and they perform from 35 to 45 revolutions in a minute.

'The mixture and trituration of the materials are greatly assisted, by introducing into every one of these vessels 80 pounds of bronze, in small balls, 4 lines in diameter; and by ledges, or mouldings, applied to the inner sides of the cask.

'The composition is known to be sufficiently pulverized, when on a small portion of it being spread over a wooden pallet, with the blade of a knife, no roughness is perceptible; when the colour is uniform, and the knife experiences no resistance on its application to the pallet.

'On the composition being taken out of the pulverizing vessels, the next operation is to give it the requisite degree of consistence, to fit it for granulation; and this is performed by strong compression, and the aid of a little water.

'With this view, square pieces of walnut-tree wood are provided, 16 inches in length, by 1 foot in breadth, furnished with mouldings projecting from 5 to 6 lines. The inferior edges of the platters are hollowed out, so as to correspond with the inner angles of these mouldings, in order that they may be readily placed within each other.

'The operation is commenced by covering the bottom of one of the tables with a piece of moist linen; over this is spread a stratum of the composition, which is carefully covered with a similar piece of wet linen, and a second platter adapted to it, filled in the same manner as the first.

'In this way, 23 platters are placed one above the other; the last of which is covered with a square piece of wood, and a heavy press screwed down upon the whole.

'By this means a hard cake is formed, which is broken by the hand, and after being dried is subjected to the process of granulation. It was formerly my opinion, that this operation might be equally well performed, by means of a muller made to act on the composition. Experience has, however, convinced me, that this last process is in every respect preferable to the former.

'This manner of forming gunpowder possesses numerous advantages; rapidity in the execution, economy in the consumption of the materials, superiority of the products, and safety in the operations.' G. 2.

From this part of the work, we might extract many interesting articles: but those which we have given may serve as fair specimens of the general merits of the publication. We have already noticed some of its defects; and we shall farther add that the almost total want of references renders it much less valuable than it might have been made with a little additional labour. Like most of his countrymen, the author frequently commits errors in spelling English proper names; and in one instance we observed that his mistake has been copied by the translator. M. CHAPTAL'S style is perspicuous, and almost free from that parade with which we are so often disgusted in the writings of our continental neighbours. The translation seems to be faithfully, though not always elegantly executed: inaccuracies arising from haste are occasionally discernible; and we have remarked some instances of what we consider as an unpardonable neglect, in not adapting the foreign weights and measures to those which are commonly used in this country.

Bos.

ART. VIII. *Lettres Choisies*, &c. Select Letters of *Voiture*, *Balzac*, *Montreuil*, *Pelisson*, and *Boursault*; with a Preliminary Discourse and short Accounts of the respective Authors. 2 Vols. 12mo. Paris. 1807. Imported by De Boffe. Price 9s. sewed.

IN the epistolary style, our neighbours have decidedly the advantage over us. Their language is perhaps better formed than our own for this kind of writing, it has been very studiously cultivated among them, and they boast of some exquisite proficients in it. The sprightly narrative of Turkish manners and usages is not to be named with the elegant and fascinating gossip of the court of Louis XIV.;—a late writer, so powerful in invective, is not to be matched with the celebrated author who prepared at a long distance the downfall of the Jesuits;—nor is the correspondence of the wits who distinguished the early part of the last century, with the exception of a few specimens, to be set on a level with the compositions from which the selection before us is made.

The editor justly observes that a happy epistolary style is indicative of talents and of a good education; that it procures consideration, and greatly assists a person's advancement in life: it seems therefore deserving of particular attention, and the first models in it ought to be consulted. He thinks that there

there are times in which this kind of writing is deemed of higher value than usual, when the best specimens are eagerly sought, and when eminence in it is most celebrated. This, he tells us, happened in France at the period of the revival of taste. When society had adopted a standard of manners, the language still remained to be fixed, and at this epoch, which he places between the latter years of Louis XIII. and the meridian of his successor's reign, that object was succesfully pursued by *Voiture* and *Balzac*.

From the time of *Pascal* and *Racine*, the editor is of opinion that the art of writing was understood: but at Paris and at court, that of talking well was become a habit, and it was commonly observed that "we ought to write a letter as we speak;" the meaning of which expression he takes to be, that the style of letters should resemble that of the conversation of well-bred persons; that is, it should be equally remote from the manner of provincial wits, the stiffness of the inferior literati, and the aukwardness of the ill-educated. We are no longer, he continues, in that state; and if we would avoid a return to barbarism, we must have recourse to standard books, to those which furnish the most correct models of taste. The capital does not always contain the best bred Frenchmen; it lately exhibited the dregs of the nation; and at this moment it presents us with a medley. It is only time, stable government, and a polished court, which can restore society, regenerate refined intercourse, reproduce the polished manners of the days of Louis XIV., and supersede coarse pleasantry by genuine ease and the power of sporting agreeably on the ordinary topics of conversation. That which, not long ago, might have been learned by intercourse with persons of distinction, must be formally taught to the youth of the present day.

The distinction of ranks suggested duties, and gave its genius to the language. Morality also prescribed duties, which were conveyed by appropriate expressions: but, in the course of the last fifteen years, all notions of rank, and every shadow of inequality, have been so effectually removed, that the rising generation finds incredible difficulty in forming any idea of a social scale which assigns its place to every class, and every individual. During the same period, morality was so horribly outraged, that its terms came to bear a signification the reverse of their genuine meaning.

The reason which the editor assigns for compiling the present selection is its tendency to civilize young readers, to inspire them with proper sentiments, and to teach them proper behaviour towards their superiors, the sex, and their equals.

This

This account not only shews the occasion of the work, but places in a strong light the prodigious change in the state of things which has been produced by the late extraordinary revolution. After having marked the differences which distinguish the well-bred from the uneducated, the Editor strongly recommends the cultivation of polite accomplishments, and points out the tendency of productions of this kind to produce that effect.

'Let them learn,' he continues, 'from the inimitable Madame *de Sevigné*, the charms which frankness and lovely simplicity communicate. Women will read her effusions again and again, till they have made her manner their own, but at the same time they will guard against servile copying. Men, and particularly men of letters, will peruse her pages with equal delight, but they will not make her their model. Her very beauties, the familiar phrases which become her, to adopt one of her own expressions, would exhibit *them* as "without beards;" *que vous n'avez pas de barbe au menton.*

'From *Racine* they will learn to be simple, natural, and interesting even in an ordinary letter. *Choulieu* will teach them to write to women of fashion with grace, politeness, ease, and a freedom which never oversteps due bounds. Would they write with address, with happy brevity, and unoffending dignity? It is a secret of which *Fontenelle* shews himself to have been master, in his correspondence with the Cardinal *de Fleury*. *Voltaire* was not more pre-eminent in any style of writing than in this. Who is not alive to the colouring, the elegance, and the taste which characterize his communications of this kind? He unites in himself almost all the excellencies of the other writers who have shone in the same line. Can he appear more amiable, than he does with *Cideville* and some others, or display more of grace than in some of his letters to the fair sex? Who can be more exquisite, striking, and philosophical, than he is with *Du Deffant*; more polished and encouraging, than with young literati; or more pleasant than with *D'Alembert*, when antichristian fanaticism does not occur to give disgust? What can be more elegant and skilful than his noble familiarity with the Czarina, the great Frederic, and the other sovereigns of Europe?

'Would one believe that many of our principal authors, like excellent dancers who know not how to walk well, have never been masters of the epistolary style? Men of genius adopt a manner in their writing which becomes a habit in them; and this is too forcible or too marked, too slow or too solemn, for the rapid movements of a style which ought to be all ease, even when it respects the most important affairs.'

The writer does not venture to question the transcendant merit of *Pascal*, though evidently not well disposed towards him, but he maintains that parts of *Voiture* and *Balzac* are as pure as any production of his pen. We do not deny that many portions of these two epistolary writers are as elegant and ingenious as any compositions that succeeding times have produced, though we contend for a superiority in

favour of *Voiture*. It is not to be disputed that the latter had all the delicacy which his cotemporaries ascribed to him, that he abounded in happy allusions, and furnished numerous examples of that neat phraseology which has been sanctioned by subsequent writers of the first eminence.

Of *Balzac*, this editor says, it is an undisputed fact that no man contributed so much as he did to give form and consistency to the French language. It is admitted that his style is too studied: but it is asserted that his epistolary compositions display elevation of thought, a sound judgment, and a mind formed on the study of the antients. 'What purity of language! What happy phraseology! What force in his expressions, which are ever suitable; what pleasantry, without ever violating decorum!'

Though the letters of *Montreuil* are not here acquitted of the appearance of having been studied, it is contended that they have more of simplicity and grace than those of *Voiture*, and that their style is more truly epistolary. He was the first who adopted the method of mixing verse with prose in familiar correspondence, in which *Voltaire* has far exceeded all others. —In the commendations bestowed on *Montreuil*, we fully concur; for we think that the liveliness and felicity which his letters display rank them with the first compositions of this kind.

The pen of *Pelisson*, in whatever department employed, was elegant; and that character certainly belongs to it in epistolary writing. His fidelity to a discarded patron, the splendid peculator *Fouquet*, secured to him the regards of Louis XIV., and laid the basis of his future fortunes.

Boursault, though so eminent a master of his own language, was wholly ignorant of those of the antients. Besides three volumes of letters which have passed through several editions, he has left a few dramatic pieces which are still occasionally acted.

'Of the three latter writers,' says the editor, '*Montreuil* will most interest the reader: his letters, which are sometimes tender, sometimes gay, and sometimes severe, but always animated, have no other fault than that of having been intended for publication.' All those of *Pelisson* are addressed to Mademoiselle *Scudery*, whose courageous friendship for him in his ill fortune is so honorable to her character. Only those of his letters have been inserted in this selection, which contain anecdotes little known of Louis XIV., *Turenne*, and some other personages of that reign. From *Boursault*'s collection, a few letters only have been taken.

If

If the reasons for publishing these selections in France are satisfactory, the selections themselves will not be deemed unacceptable in Great Britain. To polite readers, they supply a chasm in our literature. They merit attention not merely from those who cultivate epistolary writing, but from all who have a taste for compositions distinguished by ingenuity, simplicity, and elegance, and who set a value on good breeding and polished manners.

Jo.

ART. IX. *Supplément au Dixieme Livre, &c. i. e.* A Supplement to the Tenth Book of the Treatise on Celestial Mechanics. By M. LA PLACE. 4to. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe.

IN the tenth volume of this most elaborate performance, its learned author examines the phænomena which may be attributed to the refractive action of bodies on the particles of light. This action arises from the attraction of their molecules: but the law of the attraction cannot be ascertained from the phænomena, except under this condition, that the attraction at sensible distances is insensible. All the laws of attraction, in which this condition is fulfilled, equally satisfy the different phænomena of refraction indicated by experience; of which the principal is the constant ratio that obtains between the sines of incidence and refraction, when light passes through diaphanous bodies. In this case, M. LA PLACE has succeeded in submitting this class of attractions to an exact analysis; and in the present supplement, he gives a second case for the variety and extent of the dependant phænomena, more remarkable than the former, viz. that of *capillary* Action.

The phænomena of capillary attraction are so well known, and are so frequently and easily exhibited, that we shall not detain our readers in stating them, nor in refuting the hypotheses which have been feigned for their explanation. Indeed the refutation is unnecessary, since we believe that all who have attentively considered the explanations are aware that they are unsatisfactory: yet *Clairaut* must not be passed over in silence, who first submitted to strict calculation the phænomena of capillary tubes, and who brought to their explanation an acute and sagacious mind, with vast mathematical resources. The theory of this great man, however, which is set forth with elegance in his treatise on the Figure of the Earth, leaves unexplained the law of that rise which, according to experience, ought to be in the inverse ratio of the tube's diameter. *Clairaut* is contented with observing that there is an infinite number of laws of attraction, which, substituted in

his formulæ, would give that result; nevertheless, M. La Place observes, the knowlege of these laws is the most difficult and most delicate point of the theory. It is indispensibly necessary to bind together the different capillary phænomena; and *Clairaut* himself confesses the necessity of doing this, since, for example, he was desirous of making a transition from capillary tubes to capillary spaces included between parallel planes, and thence by analysis to deduce the ratio of equality which experience shews to take place between the ascent of the fluid in a cylindrical tube, and its ascent between two parallel planes, of which the mutual distance is equal to the semidiameter of the tube: a fact which hitherto no one has attempted to explain. 'I have endeavoured,' continues M. La Place, 'for a long time past, to determine the laws of attraction which represent these phænomena: new researches have at length conducted to the result, that they are all represented by the same laws which satisfy the phænomena of refraction; that is to say, by laws in which attraction is sensible only at insensible *distances*, and thence results a complete theory of capillary action.'

Clairaut, in his explanation, supposes that the action of the tube has a sensible effect on the infinitely small column of fluid which passes through the axis of the tube. M. La Place dissents from this opinion, and agrees with *Hausbee* and other philosophers in thinking that the capillary action, like the force of refraction and the chemical affinities, is felt only at insensible distances. Indeed, it is plain from *Hausbee*'s experiments, in which the height of the fluid was regulated solely by the diameter of the tube's orifice, and in no wise by the tube's thickness, that the cylindrical shells of glass adjacent to the interior surface affect not the ascent of the fluid: yet each shell, as a tube, would separately cause an ascent of the fluid.

M. La Place then lays it down as a principle, that the capillary action is infinitely small at sensible distances; and with this principle, and the action of the small meniscus which terminates the fluid in the tube, he proposes to explain all the phænomena of capillary attraction. We shall endeavour, as well as we can without a diagram, to convey some notion of his explanation. In a vessel of fluid perpendicular to the surface, suppose a capillary tube to be immersed: imagine a thin filament of fluid to pass through the axis; and then to be twice bent at right angles below the end of the tube, so as to terminate at the surface of the fluid in the vessel. Suppose, first, the surface in the capillary tube to be horizontal; then the action of the fluid beneath the plane on the filament or thin

column

column would be the same as the action of the vessel on the other part of the column parallel to the former, and terminating at the surface of the fluid. Then suppose, on the surface of the fluid in the tube, a meniscus of fluid, similar to that which is formed by the fluid adhering to the sides of the tube; the action of such meniscus would elevate the small column, and consequently cause its surface to rise above the surface of the fluid in the vessel. As the second case, suppose a meniscus of fluid abstracted from the upper surface of the fluid in the tube, (the surface being supposed to be plane,) then such a meniscus, before it is abstracted, would by its action cause the particles in the thin column to be elevated; abstracted, therefore, the particles of the fluid must tend downwards, or the surface of the fluid in the tube must sink beneath the surface in the vessel. The explanation of the ascent and descent of fluids in capillary tubes is made to rest on the form of the terminating surface; if such surface be concave upwards, the fluid must rise, and this is the case when a tube of glass is dipt into water: if the surface be convex upwards, the fluid in the tube must be depressed, and this is the case when a tube of glass is dipt into mercury. What former philosophers regarded either as an unimportant occurrence, or as a secondary effect in capillary ascents and descents, is now become in M. La Place's theory the cause of the ascents and descents. We may here state a circumstance which strongly confirms the above explanation: M. *Haüy*, in his *Traité Élémentaire de Physique*,* mentions that the depression of mercury below the surface in a capillary tube is owing to the humidity which affects the interior surface of the fluid; and he says that *Casbois*, professor at Metz, perfectly succeeded in causing mercury to ascend in a capillary tube, and in this case the surface was *concave*. Lavoisier and La Place also succeeded, by boiling mercury for a long time, in rendering the surface of the quicksilver in barometers *plane*; and it is clear, if M. La Place's theory be true, that all barometers, in which the surface of the mercury is not plane, will require a correction for the effects of capillary attraction.

The action of the meniscus of fluid, of which we have spoken, may easily be conceived. Suppose the concave part of the meniscus to be towards the horizon: from the summit of the thin column of fluid which passes through the axis of the tube, draw a line to a point within the meniscus, and from this point draw a second line to such a point (*a*) in the thin column, that the second line may equal the first line: then the

* See a subsequent article in this Appendix.

action of the point or molecule of the meniscus on this intercepted part of the column will be equal and contrary: but the molecule of the meniscus will tend to draw upwards by its action all points situated beneath the inferior point (a) and within the sphere of its action; and as the same reasoning is applicable to every molecule in the meniscus, the action of the whole meniscus must draw the column upwards. The action of the meniscus being, in a general way, made manifest, the law of its action as dependent on its form remains to be performed; a matter of greater difficulty, but of greater importance, since, as the author observes, calculation is the touchstone of truth; and unless calculation confirms the justness of the theory, by shewing that its results exactly agree with experiment, the theory is not worth more than others that have been previously refuted and discarded. M. La Place supposes the fluid to be terminated by a portion of a concave or convex spherical surface; and then he investigates the action of this surface on the interior fluid column. The forms, and nearly the investigation, of the 12th number of the second book are here renewed. If r be the distance of the attracted point from the centre of the spherical shell, the thickness of which is du and the radius u: if θ be the angle which the radius u makes with r, and ϖ the angle which a plane passing through the two right lines r and u makes with a fixed plane passing also through the line r, then the element or fluxionary spherical shell is $u^2\, du.\, d\varpi.\, d\theta.\, \sin\theta$; and if $f^2 = r^2 - 2\, ru\, \cos\theta + u^2$, & φf represent the law of attraction at the distance f, then the action of the element of the shell, in a direction parallel to r, is $u^2\, du.\, d\varpi.\, d\theta.\, \sin\theta.\, \frac{df}{dr}.\varphi(f)$. After several analytical processes, of a nature the most abstruse, the author reduces the expression representing the action to an expression of this kind, $K \mp \frac{H}{b}$; in which, $\frac{H}{b}$ is considerably smaller than K.

In this same expression, which is deduced as representing the action of a sphere the radius of which is b, the action of a body terminated by a plane surface is represented by K; for if we increase b so that it becomes infinite, $\frac{H}{b}$ vanishes, and the surface is plane; and the action is expressed by the term that remains, viz. by K. Moreover, $K - \frac{H}{b}$ represents the action of a spherical segment, formed by the section of a sphere by a plane to which the direction of the column is perpendicular: for above such intersecting plane, the action of the parts of the sphere, from their distance, would not, according

cording to the hypothesis of the very small confines of the attraction, operate on the column. From the first term of the analytical expression $K \mp \frac{H}{b}$, according to M. La Place, depend the suspension of the mercury in a barometrical tube at a height twice or thrice greater than that which is due to the pressure of the atmosphere, the refracting power of transparent bodies, cohesion, and generally chemical affinity. The second term expresses the part of the action due to the sphericity of the surface; that is to say, the action of the meniscus comprehended between that surface and the plane touching it. This action is either added to or subtracted from the former action, according as the surface is convex or concave; and it is inversely as the radius of the spherical surface: it is in fact apparent that the smaller this radius is, the more considerable is the meniscus near to the point of contact. To this second term is owing the capillary action that differs from the chemical affinities represented by the first term.

If the action of the spherical surface be represented by $\frac{H}{b}$, and if in different tubes the spherical surfaces could be shewn to be similar, then b, the radius of the sphere, would vary as d, the diameter of the tube;* consequently, the action on the infinitely small column would vary inversely as d: which it ought to do, according to experiment. This point is then attempted to be made out by the author: who shews that, in very small tubes, the surface of the fluid approaches the more nearly to that of a spherical segment, the smaller is the diameter of the tube.

'Moreover, (says he) this similitude of the spherical segments will appear evident, if we consider that the distance, at which the action of the tube ceases to be sensible, is imperceptible: so that, if by means of a very good microscope we should be enabled to make it appear equal to a millimeter, it is probable that the same magnifying power would give to the diameter of the tube an apparent magnitude of several metres. The surface of the tube, then, may be considered as nearly plane, in a radius equal to that of its sphere of sensible activity; and the fluid, in this interval, will be elevated or depressed on the surface nearly as if that surface were plane. Moreover, the fluid being subjected solely to gravity and its own action, its surface will be nearly that of a spherical segment; of which the extreme planes, being those of the fluid surface, at the limits of the sphere of the sensible activity of the tube, will be nearly, in dif-

* Here seems to be an error in the text of the work, in which (p. 4) it is said, '*les rayons de leurs surfaces seront en raison* inverse *du diamètre des tubes.*'

ferent tubes, equally inclined to their sides: whence it follows that all these segments will be similar.'

The attraction of capillary tubes may be said to influence the ascent of the fluid: but it influences it only in determining the inclination of the first planes of the surface of the interior fluid, an inclination on which the concavity or convexity of that surface, and the magnitude of its radius, depend. M. La Place observes that the friction of the fluid against the sides may, in a slight degree, augment or diminish the curvature of its surface, of which the barometer affords daily specimens, and in that case the capillary effects are diminished or augmented in the same proportion.

'The differential equation of the surface of fluids in capillary spaces of revolution, (says the author,) conducts to this general result: viz. if into a cylindrical tube another cylinder be introduced, having the same axis as the tube, and such that the space comprehended between its surfaces and the interior surface of the tube be of very small breadth, the fluid will ascend in this space to the same height as in a tube the radius of which is equal to the breadth. If the radius of the tube and of the cylinder be supposed infinite, we shall have the case of a fluid inclosed between planes vertical, parallel, and close to each other. The preceding result is verified at this limit, by experiments made formerly in the presence of the Royal Society of London, and under the eye of Newton, who has cited them in his Optics; an extraordinary work, in which that profound genius, advancing before the age in which he lived, has introduced a great number of original views which modern chemistry has confirmed. M. *Haüy*, at my request, has kindly made certain experiments towards the other limit; that is to say, employing cylinders and tubes of a very small diameter; and he has found the preceding result equally exact at that limit as at the former.'

Whatever philosophers may ultimately determine respecting the exactness of M. La Place's theory, at present it appears highly plausible and probable, from the neatness and facility with which it solves many common phænomena. We have seen how it explains the ascent of the fluid to be inversely as the diameter of the tube: if we put water into a conical tube open at its ends, and hold the tube horizontally, the water moves towards the lesser end: now, the surface of the column of water is concave towards each end, but the radius of the surface towards the vertex is smaller than the radius of the surface towards the base; and consequently, agreeably to M. La Place's formula and reasoning, the column ought to tend towards that end. If the fluid column be mercury, then its surface is convex, and still the radius of the surface towards the summit is less than that towards the base: but, by reason of its convexity, the action of the fluid on itself is greater towards

towards the summit, and the column must be carried towards the base.

Another curious phænomenon also admits of explanation. If two vertical and parallel planes be plunged by their lower extremities into a fluid, then these planes bend towards each other, both when the fluid rises and when it sinks between. If the fluid rises, then each plane from *without* to *within* experiences a pressure equal to a column of the same fluid, the height of which is half the sum of the elevation above the level of the points of contact of the interior and exterior surfaces of the fluid with the plane, and of which the base shall be a part of the plane comprehended between two horizontal lines drawn through those points. If the fluid sinks between the planes, each, from *without* to *within*, experiences a pressure equal to a column of the same fluid, of which the height is half the sum of the depressions below the level of the points of contact of the interior and exterior surfaces of the fluid with the plane, and of which the base is a part of the plane comprised between two horizontal lines drawn through those points.

As this theory, and the inquiries connected with it, are to us very interesting, we wish to commend them to the attention of that part of the world which is called *philosophic;* and we cannot make this recommendation better than in the words of the celebrated author himself: 'I hope that this application of analysis to one of the most curious objects in physics may interest geometricians, and excite them more and more to multiply such applications: which, to the advantage of ascertaining physical theories, add that of bringing to perfection analysis itself, by frequently exacting new artifices of calculation.'

R.W.

ART. X. *Panthéon Chinois*, &c.; *i. e.* The Chinese Pantheon, or a Comparison of the Religious Rites of the Greeks with those of the Chinese; with additional Evidence to prove that China was known to the Greeks, and that the Serica of classic Authors is China. By JOSEPH HAGER, Doctor of the University of Pavia, and Public Professor of Oriental Languages in the same University. 4to. pp. 213. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 2l. 2s.

REVERSING the order of discussion, the first subject mentioned in the title is sometimes the last which occurs in the book; and so it is in the present instance. Before we are introduced into what is termed the Chinese Pantheon, we are presented with a long dissertation, in which the learned Professor endeavours

to illustrate the geography of the antients, and to remove difficulties which have hitherto appeared insurmountable. When we take into consideration the small progress made by the antient Greek and Roman writers in geographical science, compared with the moderns, we shall not be surprised that their accounts of remote regions are confused and contradictory; nor that much ingenuity and skill are necessary to discover real facts, in the mass of error and fiction with which they have enveloped their narratives. Dr. HAGER has been industrious, and we think in some respects successful, in his researches: but occasionally his conclusions do not absolutely flow from his premises. Like a true antiquary, he makes his way by the help of conjecture and etymology; and he knows how to bring together scattered and detached evidence, so as to make an impression on his readers.

An opinion advanced in another work by Dr. HAGER, viz. that the *Serica* of the classic authors was the country now called China, having been opposed by M. *Mentelle* in France and by Mr. Pinkerton in England, it is here resumed at some length. It is asserted by the French writer that Σηρικη, described by Ptolemy, was to the north-east of the region which we denominate China; and the latter says (Geography, vol. ii. p. 450.) "it will be clear from Ptolemy's description and maps that Serica can be no other than Little Bucharia, always possessed by an industrious and intelligent race of men." These statements are here strenuously controverted, and a number of facts are adduced to maintain Dr. HAGER's position. We have the evidence of the most antient historians, and of those of the subsequent ages, to prove that Serica was the country whence silk was obtained; and that its position corresponds with northern China, which still continues to furnish prodigious quantities of this article to all civilized nations. The route to this silk-producing-country was overland through Media and Scythia: but with its southern part, or *Siam*, the antients were not acquainted till afterward, by means of the navigation of the Indian seas, which was then in its infancy; when they comprised it under the general name of India, its proper name of *Tsin* not being known to them. It was not, indeed, till the æra of Eratosthenes, (200 years B.C.) that Asia resounded with the name of *Tsin*; which is the reason that prevented Herodotus, or any of the Greek writers anterior to Eratosthenes, from mentioning Θινα or *Thinæ*, a country which he places at the eastern extremity of Asia, under the latitude of mount Taurus, corresponding to the position of the capital of China. It is stated, also, that the principal nations of Asia at this day call China by the name *Tsin*, *Tchin*, or *Sin*; and it is hence

concluded that, as *Thina* or *Thinæ* afforded silk and silken manufactures, it must be in Serica, and that Serica and China must be one and the same country.

To this evidence, ulterior or collateral proofs are subjoined. Dr. HAGER quotes the testimony of Moses Chorensis, an Armenian writer of the fifth century; who relates that, between the north and the east of Asia, is a country abounding in silk, which its opulent inhabitants manufacture; and that this country is called *Dgenastan.* 'Now, (says Dr. H.) if we cut off the last syllable, which is an affix, as in *Hindoo-stan*, *Turquestan*, *Tartari-stan*, there will remain the word *Dgena*, which has a near affinity to *China;* and the little difference that subsists is not greater than would occur at present between the pronunciation of this word by the Italians and by the English.'

A testimony, however, which appears to be more decisive, is that of Cosmas Indicopleustes, who flourished about the middle of the sixth century. This Greek writer, who was himself a merchant and a traveller, says that the silk country (η χωρα του μεταξιου) is called *Tzinista;* that it is the last country in Asia; and that it is bounded by the ocean. 'If (continues Dr. H.) we despoil this word of its last syllable, as in the preceding instance, there will remain *Tzin*, the country of the emperor *Tzin*, *i. e.* China, called Σηρικη by the Greeks.' To support his hypothesis, however, it is necessary for the Dr. to attack the authority of Ptolemy; who, instead of the ocean, has placed *an unknown region* (αγνωστη γη) to the east of Serica. Here the author does not merely content himself with shewing that the antient geographer has committed an error, (which he was very likely to do,) but maintains that Ptolemy himself, in spite of his *unknown region*, has recognized Serica as agreeing with China.

It is curious here to observe the opinions of the learned respecting the geography of the East before the discoveries of the Portuguese.

In a chapter intitled *a Reply to Objections*, Dr. HAGER protests against the authority of *D'Anville;* who has asserted that, of all antient authors, we are most indebted to Ptolemy for our knowlege of Serica. He observes also that, if with *Pinkerton* we place it in Little Bucharia; in Igour (perhaps Iga,) with *De Pauw;* in Thibet with *Bayer;* or in Tancut with Sir William Jones; the question will always return, where is the Seric ocean? where are the *Seras*, the inhabitants of the eastern coast, a people, according even to Ptolemy, situated to the east of all Scythia?

We shall pass over the notice of the λιθος τυργος of Scythia, mentioned by Ptolemy, with merely stating that Dr. H. decides it to be *Tasch-kand*, which lies in the route from Bactria

to

to China, in order to attend him in his inquiry respecting the substance or material of which the *Murrhine* vessels, so celebrated among the Romans, were composed. These, he has every reason to think, were made of a precious stone known in the East under the name of *Yuché*. After having produced various instances to prove the high estimation in which this stone was held by the Orientals, he thus sums up the amount of his evidence:

'My object is to prove that this stone is very antient; that it is found in many countries in the East; that it has been highly esteemed at the courts of the emperor of China, of Thibet, and of the Great Mogul; that, when it was of a certain size, its value was immense; that it was a jewel worthy of a prince, and fit for a present from one sovereign to another; that they have possessed and do now possess it of an extraordinary magnitude; that they construct of it vases and other articles of a size equal to the murrhine vases; and consequently that it is highly probable that it is the very material out of which the murrhine vases were fabricated.'—

'It is true (he continues) that Pliny seems to speak of colours which change according to the position in which they are placed with relation to the eye, and of the reflection of colours similar to those of the rainbow. But all those reasons do not militate against the stone *yu*. Pliny adds the word *subinde* which signifies *sometimes*, or *from time to time*. It is not, then, all the murrhine vases that have the same clouds or colouring. M. *de Sacy* quotes a passage from the ritual of the antient dynasty of the *Tcheou*, according to which there were in the temple of the emperor six utensils of the stone *yu*, which had each their particular colour, *green*, *yellow*, *white*, *violet*, *black*, and *red*; and we learn from the reports of the missionaries, that there is a very bright stone (*pellucida*) which is sometimes compared to an agate, sometimes to a jasper, sometimes to a sapphire; and which in short has all colours and all shades.'

Pliny informs us (Lib. 37. c. 2. here quoted Lib. 33.) that *Oriens hanc mittit;* and Dr. HAGER, after a long induction, concludes that the vases esteemed as highly precious in the East, and those so greatly valued by the Roman emperors which were said to come from the East, must be the same.

A chapter on the first travels of the Greeks into China introduces the curious subject of *the Golden Fleece*, on which so much has been written and so little known, and which the Professor of Pavia contends was nothing more than the *Median habit*. He asserts that Jason went into Media for the purpose of obtaining silk. If it be replied that this Argonaut's expedition is expressly said to have been undertaken for the sake of finding a *fleece*, and not *silk*, the Doctor is ready with his answer, that *silk* is called a *fleece;* that even in our own times, *velours*, *velvet*, takes its name from *velus*, a Latin word which signifies

signifies a *fleece;* and that the term *golden* applied to it arose from the resemblance of the natural colour of silk to that of gold. Not being quite satisfied with this explanation, however, he farther conjectures the probability that *a tissue or brocade wrought of silk and gold* might have obtained the appellation of the *golden fleece.*

On the circumstance of the golden fleece being said to have been suspended from a tree, he remarks that the antients thought that silk grew on trees; and he tells us of a district in Cochin-china covered with mulberry trees, in which the silk-worms produce their silk in the open air, and in such abundance that all the inhabitants, rich and poor, have their garments made of silk. The result of the whole is, that silk appears to have been known to the Greeks from the time of the Argonauts, and that there was a communication between China and Greece before this epoch. This intercourse is endeavoured to be established from the similarity existing between the sacred vases of the two countries. The use of tripods in sacred rites is as old as, if not older than, the Argonautic expedition; since Jason took on board of his ship one of these utensils for the purpose of presenting it to Apollo at Delphos, before he quitted Greece. As to the original form of these tripods, it was different from that which came in vogue at a subsequent period. The tripods of the Greeks were at first vases standing on three feet, which they offered to the Gods and to the manes of the departed; and since the same kind of vessels are similarly applied in China, it is inferred that a very early intercourse subsisted between the two nations. We are informed that

'In the collection of the antient monuments of the Chinese nation, published by the order of the late emperor, the first is a *tripod,* which is called divine, and attributed to *Fou-hi.*'—

"It seems, (says *De Guignes,*) that the Chinese have as great a respect for this vase as the Greeks entertained for the tripod of Apollo."

'The antient sovereigns of China, while saying their prayers, prostrate themselves before a tripod.'

When we at last arrive at the head title of Dr. HAGER'S present work, *the Chinese Pantheon,* we are presented with a plate representing a Chinese temple, which is so very unlike a Grecian temple, that it is not easy to conceive that the architecture of one was borrowed from that of the other. The Professor does not undertake to maintain the affirmative of this position: but he fixes his attention on the two figures representing dogs, or lions, which stand on pedestals on each side of the approach to the Chinese temple, and contends that the Sphinx

Sphinx of the Greeks must have been taken from them. Etymology helps Dr. H. to his conclusion:

'The sacred *Sphinx* appears to have been originally a dog. According to *Hesiod*, he was born of Orthus, the dog of Geryon; and according to *Palæphatus*, he had the body of a dog. Its name, moreover, seems clearly to be derived from the word *Spaco*, which, in the language of *Media*, signifies a dog, and which the Greeks have transformed, in their usual way, into Σφιγξ.'

Some readers will be surprized to find that the temple, which Dr. H. pompously designates by the title of Chinese Pantheon, contained no image or idol: but even from this circumstance he would draw a conclusion favourable to his position; for he remarks that the temples of those Greeks and Romans, who followed the doctrine of Pythagoras, were destitute of idols; and that, according to Plutarch, the temples of Rome for the first 160 years contained neither sculptured nor painted images.

This work finishes with translations of the Chinese inscriptions on the above mentioned temple: but of their accuracy we can give no opinion; and of the general contents it will be sufficient to observe that they serve to illustrate antient geography, and that they are creditable to the learning and abilities of the author.

Mo-y.

ART. XI. *Les Antenors Modernes,* &c. i. e. The Modern Antenors, or the Travels of Christina and Casimir in France, during the Reign of Louis XIV: being a Sketch of public and private Manners in the Seventeenth Century, taken from the secret Memoirs of the two Ex-Sovereigns; continued by *Huet*, Bishop of *Avranches*. With Engravings, from the Designs of *Lafitte*. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 10s. sewed.

WHEN our readers have perused this title page, they will perhaps anticipate our remark, that the work is formed on the model of the Travels of the Young Anacharsis: but they will be glad to learn, in addition, that it is a successful imitation of that learned and seductive performance. Though the sketch before us required much less of labour and erudition than the grand undertaking of the accomplished Abbé *Barthélémy*, and though the materials employed in the former are more ordinary and humble than those which gave splendour to the latter, it will be allowed that, as far as design and execution are concerned, the Modern Antenors greatly excel the antient, and need not blush by the side of the Young Anacharsis. While, however, we render this justice to the present amusing and instructive performance, we profess to be no admirers

admirers of this dramatic mode of conveying historical information. The dignity of history seems to us to suffer by it; truth and fiction are in a degree confounded; and an effect is produced on the sober reflecting mind that is not altogether pleasant. We cannot help regarding its prevalence as a proof of a vitiated taste; and we hear with concern that the press is to be occupied by more productions of the same kind.

It is here remarked that posterity is not in a situation to judge impartially of dynasties till they have passed away. We are, the author conceives, placed in a position in which we may fairly estimate Louis XIV.: but he does not purpose to say much of that monarch, it being his object to paint the Seventeenth Century; and he refers to *Anquetil* for an account of the Court, while he contends that the *Siècle de Louis* XIV. has not superseded the undertaking in which he has embarked. That work, he says, having been penned by *Voltaire* under the influence of interests and recollections sufficiently recent to give a strong bias to the mind, refers every thing to the ostentatious prince, while it embraces but a small part of the epoch in question.

We learn that a passage which occurs in the younger *Racine* suggested the present design. That writer observes that "it seemed as if great poets, painters, orators, and philosophers, had agreed to meet at the same time, in order that every one in his own department should contend for the glory of perfection. First in the order of time and in genius, stands *Descartes*, who is to be placed at the head of the splendid list of great names which procured this glorious æra to France. The period which witnessed their immortal labours was not of any great length. One man might have seen them all, and in fact one did, namely M. *Huet*, who was himself illustrious for his science and erudition. In his youth, he had seen *Descartes*, and he died ten years after *Boileau*."

'In the present work,' says the author, 'the characters introduced are not exhibited as subservient to one leading personage, but the whole forms a gallery of portraits, and a succession of events in which men and things occupy the places allotted to them by destiny. The object has been to exhibit general and particular manners, to hold out to view nature as it were surprized in her very acts, and to develope those traits which characterize the human being, and which constitute the charm of the narratives of Plutarch and *Montaigne*. A preference has been given to those facts which are in the nature of anecdotes, over such as impose and dazzle.'

It has also been the author's attempt, in these volumes, to sketch three great epochs, and three great personages. The first commences at the moment when Louis XIV. began really to reign, and when *Christina* queen of Sweden surrendered her

her crown. She meets the Prince of *Condé* at Brussels, and Cardinal *de Retz* at Rome; and in the society of those great actors in the troubles of the minority, she is initiated into the mysteries of war, gallantry, and policy, and learns all the intrigues of the parties which then divided the kingdom.

The second epoch refers to the period when *Casimir*, who while king of Poland had sought *Christina* in marriage, arrived in France; and this was at the time of the highest glory of Louis XIV. He becomes Abbot of St. Germain-des-Près, and the lover of a courtesan; and his simple style of living forms a striking contrast with the curious inquietude and petulant vivacity of the Northern Queen. He examines and reports on the physical and moral state of Paris. Pleasure and the arts divide his leisure.

The celebrated *Huet*, bishop of *Avranches*, relates the incidents and events of the third period. He had been acquainted with *Christina* and *Casimir*, had witnessed all the grandeur and all the humiliation of the reign of Louis XIV., and survived that monarch six years. He laments the calamities of the state, and paints in lively colours the odious and impolitic revocation of the edict of Nantes.

This plan will enable the reader to contrast the shades of the several epochs, and the traits which marked the different characters. The first epoch exhibits the license of the Fronde; the second is voluptuous, brilliant, and devoted to the developement of the arts; the third, dark and sombre, represents all as lost in the clouds raised by bigotry and intolerance. The characters, it is conceived, are adapted to the scenes which they are intended to paint: *Christina* and Folly, *Casimir* and Epicureanism, *Huet* and Jesuitism, severally figure, and succeed each other.

We are assured that the writer has adhered not only to the substance of his authorities, but has adopted their precise terms. It would have been very easy for him, he says, to have dressed up the matter derived from them in his own language, but this would have been to have put a robe of modern drapery on an antique. He has on the contrary preserved the costume of the time, by making each party speak and act as he actually spoke and acted. He denies that his work is to be regarded as an historical romance; the fiction consists only in the frame, while the picture which it incloses is reality. It is a sort of dramatic history, by which the interest is increased without prejudice to accuracy.—We have already expressed our sentiments on this new species of writing: but it is only justice to the author and to our readers to state the different views of it entertained by him.

In

From a compilation of this sort, novelty is not to be expected. Its principal claim rests on the judicious manner in which it has brought together the most striking and interesting traits, that lie scattered through the desultory and voluminous memoirs which have been handed down to us from the age to which it refers, It will form a valuable appendage to the ordinary histories of the period, and will prove of great service to those who want either leisure or perseverance to wade through the collection of narratives, which we owe to the vanity of so many individuals of that period.

In the first of these volumes, laudable and proper pains are taken to do justice to the services of various kinds which *Descartes* rendered to human knowlege; a very minute as well as ingenious account of which is here detailed. It is truly stated that he refuted antient errors, and set an example of free inquiry in respect to matters which before his time had been received with implicit confidence. The additions for which science stands indebted to him are considerable, but his chief merit consists in the facilities for its advancement which we owe to him.—One of his disciples is introduced as bestowing the highest praise on his method, and is made to say:

"It is not as a metaphysician, a philosopher, a geometrician, or an anatomist, that I principally value *Descartes:* but as the patron of a practical philosophy which derives instruction from facts, and which wholly refers itself to the welfare of mankind, that he engages my reverence. I regard his *method* as one of the most valuable gifts that were ever made to men. Systems pass away, but his method will always remain. Four rules lie at its foundation; the first is to receive nothing as true that is not evidently known to be so; the second, to divide things to the utmost, in order the better to resolve them; the third, properly to guide our thoughts, commencing with the most simple, and gradually ascending to those that are most compound; the fourth, to omit the consideration of no one particular, in matters which we undertake to examine. He one day in a numerous society, at which a Cardinal was present, furnished a striking specimen of the application of which his method was capable. He begged that some one of the party would state to him a proposition which he believed to be perfectly clear and well founded. This was done; when, by means of twelve arguments, each more convincing than the other, he proved to the satisfaction of the company that the proposition was false. He then desired that some position the most incontestibly false might be mentioned to him; and by means of another series of twelve plausible arguments, he satisfied his hearers that the position was true. The company was surprised by the force and extent of comprehension which the reasoning of this philosopher displayed, but it was still more astonished at discovering with what facility we may be misled by means of probabilities."

The character of the great *Condé* is here very minutely examined, and skilfully analyzed: while the comparison between him and *Turenne* is striking and ingenious, and displays great discrimination. The Prince, we are told, was sensible of and did justice to the great qualities of his illustrious rival. He did not disdain to consult him on the conduct to be pursued in war; and *Turenne* is supposed to answer as follows: "Undertake few sieges, but engage in frequent combats as soon as you have rendered your army superior to that of the enemy in number and in excellence; this you had nearly done at the battle of Rocroy. When you are master of the campaign, villages will avail you nearly as much as strong places: but it is the custom to expend all our means in taking a fortified town, which might ensure the reduction of a province. If the money consumed on sieges by the king of Spain had been laid out on troops, he would have been at this day the most powerful king in Europe."—We wish that our plan would allow us to make extracts from the fine parallel here drawn between these two extraordinary men, who severally seem to share the characteristics which distinguish two renowned French Generals of the present day; the imperial *Napoleon*, and the exiled *Moreau*.

We also find this compiler making selections which fairly appreciate the state of forensic eloquence at this period. It is observed that

'The ornaments of the bar of that day owed their oratorical superiority to a careful study of dialectics: not those dialectics which are employed in chicane, and which seek only to surprize by specious sophisms: but those which teach us to separate truth from falsehood, to distinguish with the nicest precision between that which enters into and that which is foreign from the subject: which never lose sight of the object sought; which alway follow a direct course, avoiding those turns and those idle digressions that divert the attention from the end to be attained: which strip from expressions and thoughts all that is obscure and equivocal; which determine the true sense of every thing, and give clearness and distinctness to ideas; which rise to first principles, and which draw thence obvious and inevitable consequences; and which admit no proof that is not conclusive. None except those who are ignorant of their value ever neglect this species of dialectics. It is to *Descartes* that we are indebted for their introduction.'

The same speaker professes a strong wish to see a taste for jurisprudence revive, which he says can be regarded as an inferior pursuit only by those who are strangers to the noblest employment of their faculties: viz the discovery of the suggestions of reason and the rules of justice. 'Greatly is it to be lamented that this most valuable science is so much neglected,

neglected, and that the liberal study of it is so little followed. Would it not be interesting to survey it as a moral code, to resolve its difficulties, to trace its origin, to investigate its antiquities, to pursue its progress, and to contrast it with the systems of other wise nations?'

The traits here sketched of the venerable magistrates *Seguier*, *Guillaume de Lamoignon*, and *Bignou*, and of the celebrated advocates *Fabrot*, *Fevret*, and *Le Grand*, indicate able pencils.

If we had ample time and space, we should gladly accompany the abdicated Queen in her conversations at Rome, as well as in her voyage to Marseilles and her tour through the south of France. For the interesting and amusing information, however, which the narrative of these parts contain, as well as for that which is supplied by the adventures of *Casimir*, we must refer to these attractive volumes themselves; and we shall quit the royal adventurers, in order to attend to a few facts and observations of the enlightened and learned Bishop of Avranches, on the subject of the revocation of the edict of Nantes. —The Bishop is made to narrate, with great particularity, the incredible horrors which attended that detestable measure, as well as the base and disgraceful intrigues which led to its adoption; and the abhorrence of the reader is raised to the highest pitch, by the introduction of the sublime apostrophe of *Saurin*, which has been so frequently quoted, and to which we know nothing superior, perhaps nothing equal, in sacred eloquence.

The venerable prelate is supposed to say that there was no pretence for the intolerance. The loyalty of the protestants was admitted. Louis had repeatedly confirmed their privileges, and sworn to observe the edict. It was a legacy which had descended to him from his illustrious grandfather Henry IV., and the speech of that monarch on the occasion of its being registered contained the sentence of condemnation of the ignominious proceeding; a speech which we would recommend to the perusal of some modern statesmen, who appear to us to be more distinguished by narrow zeal than political wisdom, and who seem more ambitious to be considered as devotees than as able public men.

'In the districts in which the persecution raged, the most dreary desolation succeeded to a most flourishing state of things. Nothing was seen but scaffolds and instruments of punishment, and an *intendant* never appeared without an executioner at his elbow. Nearly a hundred thousand families left the kingdom; and they carried away with them arts, manufactures, and wealth. The north of Germany, at that time rude and uncultivated, had its entire face changed by these strangers. They peopled entire cities. They fabricated a variety of articles which before were imported from France. They occupied an entire suburb of London. France lost nine hundred thousand inhabitants.

Holland gained excellent soldiers and officers. The prince of Orange had whole regiments consisting of refugees. A colony of them settled at the Cape, and the French protestants became as much dispersed as the Jews.—It was found that all this mischief was done and this odium incurred to no purpose. The separatists still assembled, and the new converts every day renounced the faith which force had imposed on them.'

Thus gratuitiously pernicious is intolerance, whether it be positive, as in the case of persecution, or negative, as in that of exclusion;—it is ever most hostile to the peace and prosperity of a country. The recent statutes with regard to Ireland too clearly evince this position.—While the infatuated Louis, seduced by priests and devotees, was thus violating every maxim of policy and every rule of justice, and inflicting a severe blow on the prosperity of his empire, let us not suppose that his proceedings were regarded with general execration. On the contrary, the opponents of intolerance were a small minority. In the crowd of flatterers, and amid the plaudits of a bigoted public, the voice of the enlightened and wise few was disregarded; a *Fenelon*, a *Huet*, and one or two magistrates, reasoned and supplicated in vain. Madame *de Sevigné*, at the head of the courtiers, extols the act as the most glorious of the king's reign, and exhorts her son in law, M. *de Grignan*, to give no quarter to the heretics, but to pursue them to their mountains and fortresses. The *Chancellor*, *Le Tellier*, on signing the edict of revocation, exclaimed, in the awful words of scripture, *Now, Lord, lettest thou thy servant depart in peace*, &c.; and the minister *Louvois* not only approved of the measure, but had persuaded himself that it would redound to the glory of his master, and enhance his own consideration.

At the close of the volume, is given a list of the protestants who were persecuted in France, by order of the *Intendants* in 1681, and in 1685-6, with a particular list of those who were sent on board the gallies.—The reader will derive from this work far more just notions of the age of Louis XIV. than from the celebrated production of *Voltaire*.

Jo.

ART. XII. *Novum Testamentum Græce. Textum ad fidem codicum, versionum, et Patrum recensuit, et Lectionis varietatem adjecit, D.* JO. JAC. GRIESBACH. *Volumen II. Acta et Epistolas Apostolorum cum Apocalypsi complectens. Editio secunda, emendatior multoque locupletior.* 8vo. pp. 764. Halæ Saxonum. 1806. *Londini apud Payne.*

LONG has the learned part of the Christian world been expecting the completion of Dr. GRIESBACH's labours on the New Testament, and we have great pleasure in the present occasion

easion of announcing it to the British public. The first volume, containing the collation of the four Gospels, which appeared in 1796, was reviewed by us in the same year, (see M. R. vol. xxii. N.S. p. 481); and the praise which it merited, and universally received, excited an anxiety respecting its progress and termination. It is, therefore, with more modesty than accuracy, that Dr. G. supposes that few readers will interest themselves in the causes which have retarded the appearance of this second volume, and have prevented it from following the first till after two complete *lustrums* had been consumed. Apologizing, however, for this delay, he reminds us of the assistance which he reasonably expected from the collection of various readings prepared by the learned *Birch* of Copenhagen, the fruit of whose critical labours had been in a considerable degree consumed by the great fire which happened in the capital of Denmark. After having waited two years in vain for aid from his brother collector, and despairing of help from this quarter, Dr. G. applied himself to a revision of the Acts of the Apostles: but, while the last chapters of this book were in the press, he at length received information that the Birchian edition of various readings, which he was desirous of consulting, was about to be given to the world. When this work reached him in 1799, he chearfully renewed his task; and with such assiduity did he prosecute it, that in a short time, considering the difficulty and trouble of the undertaking, he transcribed nearly all St. Paul's Epistles. Severe illness interrupted his pursuit: but, as soon as he became convalescent, he again resumed his work, resolved rather to perish than to leave it in an unfinished state. Animated by this persevering spirit, he arrived at last, *quæ Dei est gratia*, at the expected goal.

In our former article, we gave a short historical sketch of the principal editions of the New Testament, from that of Erasmus in 1516, (the first which was published), to that of Dr. Griesbach. From this sketch, and from the passages which we translated from the learned Prolegomena, prefixed by the Doctor to his first volume, we believe that our readers were presented with a fair view of the state of the sacred text, of what had been effected towards its improvement, and of what was still to be done to remove its remaining imperfections. We spoke of the author's labours in terms of great commendation; and we are pleased to find that all which has been said in praise of his first volume (and no work of the same nature has been more generally praised) may be applied with equal justice to the present.

The Editor acknowleges, with gratitude, his obligations to his friends *celeberrimis et doctissimis Bredencampio et Dobrowskio;* to the first of whom he is indebted for a complete collation of the Armenian version, and to the latter for copious extracts and a full description of the Slavonic manuscripts and printed editions.

Dr. GRIESBACH is known to be a powerful advocate for the opinion that the Greek manuscripts and the Oriental versions may be divided into distinct classes; *i. e.* as the German writers express themselves, into distinct families. This, he remarks, is more observable in the Acts of the Apostles and the Epistles of St. Paul, than in the Catholic Epistles and Apocalypse; for which he accounts by saying that the latter were less read by the early Christians than the former: but, even in the Catholic Epistles and the Apocalypse he asserts the distinction to be sometimes strongly discoverable; and he contends that, in respect to the Apocalypse, the manuscripts which he distinguishes by the letter and numerals B. 6. 8. 9. 14. 16. 29. 30. 31. 32. and the Complutensian text, are of a very different class from the manuscripts which he marks by the numerals 7. 12. 36. 38.

After a learned critic, like Dr. GRIESBACH, has with great ardor and industry accomplished the object of his zealous pursuit, it is gratifying to perceive him satisfactorily reviewing his labours. The reader will therefore peruse the following passage with pleasure, and, subscribing to its accuracy, will not accuse the author of vain glorious boasting:

'*Confidenter vero pronunciare ausim, nullam extare sive Novi Testamenti sive ullius veteris auctoris editionem tam modico pretio parabilem et intra tam arctos duorum voluminum limites se continentem, quæ tantam quam nostra hæc editio exhibeat variantium lectionum copiam, tantumque producat testium cuique lectioni patrocinantium agmen, nec tamen propinandis manifestis librariorum sphalmatibus et nullius plane momenti discrepantiis nauseam lectoribus creet, neque molesta ipsis sit singulos quosque nominatim excitando testes, utut proxime inter se cognatos et ipsa multitudine sua, quo minus uno oculorum mentisque obtutu lustrari certoque judicio expendi queant, impedientes. Atque hac saltim ex parte diligentiam nostram speramus probaturos esse vel eos adeo, qui a nostro de singulorum locorum lectionibus qualicunque judicio subinde fortasse dissentient.*'

The preface is followed by a catalogue of the MSS. consulted by the author in this part of his work; in which he explains the marks and abbreviations employed in his critical notes. The *Codices uncialibus literis scripti*, or those written in square uncial characters, are thus arranged and designated: *A. (A.) *Alexandrinus.*—B. (B.) *Vaticanus.*—*C. (C.) *Codex Ephrem.*

Ephrem.—*D. (*Evang.* D.) *Cantabrigienis.*—*E. *Laudianus.*—F. *Coislinianus.*—G. (*Paulin.* I.) *Cardinalis Passionei.*—The text then succeeds, which is arranged exactly on the same plan as in the former volume.

Three readings in the portion of the N. T. now before us have been the subject of much disquisition.

I. Is the 28th verse of the 20th chapter of the Acts of the Apostles to be read as it stands in the received text, Προσέχετε ουν ἑαυτοῖς και παντι τω ποιμνιω, εν ω υμας το πνευμα το αγιον εθετο επισκοπους, ποιμαινειν την εκκλησιαν ΤΟΥ ΘΕΟΥ, ην περιεποιησατο διὰ ΤΟΥ ΙΔΙΟΥ ΑΙΜΑΤΟΣ? or, instead of ΤΟΥ ΘΕΟΥ, should we read του κυριου; and instead of του ιδιου αιματος, should we read του αιματος του Θεου? Dr. GRIESBACH states the authorities on each side, examines them with great acuteness, and finally decides in favour of του κυριου, and του αιματος του Θεου.

II. What is the true reading of ver. 16. of chap. iii. of St. Paul's first epistle to Timothy, και ομολογουμενως μεγα εστι το της ευσεβειας μυστηριον· Θεος εφανερωθη εν σαρκι, &c. Is Θεος genuine? Is the right reading ΟΣ? Is it Ο? The received Greek text and our common version read Θεος; the Vulgate and *Wetstein* have Ο; and Dr. G. reads ΟΣ, and defends his choice by a learned note. He takes it for granted that, in the Alexandrine manuscript, ος was originally written, and, by the introduction of a hair-stroke in Ο, was converted to $\overline{\Theta\Sigma}$ by a second hand. While we remark that ος is so strange a reading that it should not be adopted without irresistible evidence, we must add that the testimony adduced by Dr. G. in its favour is very strong; and in *Woide*'s *Notitia Codicis Alexandrini*, we understand that Professor *Cramer* proposes the insertion of a parenthesis which completely justifies that reading. He suggests that the 15th and 16th verses should stand in this manner; εαν δε βραδυνω, ινα ειδης, πως δει εν οικω Θεου αναστρεφεσθαι ητις εστιν εκκλησια Θεου ζωντος (στυλος και εδραιωμα της αληθειας· και ομολογουμενως μεγα εστιν το της ευσεβειας μυστηριον) ος εφανερωθη &c.

We shall quote Dr. G.'s note on this text, in order that our readers may form some idea of his mode of illustration; and this we shall do the more readily, because, in our former article, the length at which we noticed the Prolegomena prohibited us from making farther extracts:

'*Ut ipsi nobis constaremus lectionem* ὃς, *loco vulgatæ* θεὸς, *salvo tamen uniuscujusque lectoris judicandi facultate pollentis judicio, in textum recepimus. Postulabant enim hoc leges criticæ, quarum summam in prolegomenis volumini priori præmissis proposuimus, quas doctissimi critici suo assensu comprobarunt. et ad quarum normam universum Novi Test. textum in hac editione conformare studuimus. Tuentur scilicet hanc lectionem antiquissimi om-*

nium classium testes, eademque internis etiam veri indiciis nobis sese commendat. Contra vero vulgatum θεὸς *nec Alexandrinæ nec occidentalis recensionis primitiva lectio fuit, neque argumentis ex ipsa lectionis indole desumtis defendi potest, sed juniorum tantum codicum, ad Constantinopolitanam potissimum recensionem pertinentium, numero et recentiorum patrum græcorum ancipili fide nititur, nec in ullo antiquitatis monumento, seculo quarto exeunte anteriore, reperiri potuit. Scilicet*

a) quod attinet ad testes *pro lectione quaque militantes, I.* Codices *ACFGgr.* 17. 73. *legunt* ὃς, *D* habet* ὃ, *cæteri, quos novimus, omnes, etiam Matthæiani* 13, *Alteriani* 8, *et Birchiani* 32, *exhibent* θεός. *Hiant vero hoc loco BEH aliique nonnulli. Cæterum codices A et C a prima manu non* ΘΣ, *ut nonnullis visum fuerat, sed* ΟΣ *habuisse, in codice autem D primitus O lectum idque a correctore multo juniore in* ΘΣ *mutatum esse, copiose in Symbolarum criticarum tomo* 1. *pag. VIII—LIV. et tomo* 2. *pag.* 56-76 *demonstravimus, ad quem librum lectores ablegare liceat. II. E* Versionibus *Arabica polygl. et slavonica ms. et ed. exhibent solæ* θεὸς, *cæteræ omnes non* θεὸς, *sed pronomen* ὃς *sive* ὃ *exprimunt. Nempe Copt. Sahid. et Syr. p. in m.* ὃς, qui ; *Vulg. vero et It. (clar. bœrn.)* o, quod; *Syr. utr. Erp. Æth. et Arm. alterutrum legerunt pronomen, sive* qui *sive* quod. *Tot vero versiones vetustas e latina esse interpolatas, hanc autem e Cyrilli aliusve græci patris scholio corruptam fuisse, nemo, qui sacri textus historiam et genuinas criticæ artis leges bene cognitas habet et perspectas, persuaderi sibi hodie patietur. III.* Patres *a)* latini *omnium seculorum omnes legerunt* mysterium s. sacramentum quod manifestatum etc. *licet de Christo intelligerent. Sic Hilar. Aug. Pelag. Iulian. pelag. Fulgent. Idacius. Ambrosiaster. Leo M. Victorin. Cassian. Gregor. M. Vigil. taps. Beda. Chrysologus. Martinus I. in epist. ad Ioannem Philadelph. in Mansi collect. ampliss. concilior. vol.* 10. *pag.* 812. (*sed in versione græca ibidem extat* ὡς) *Solus Hier. in Es.* 53, 11. *et Acta concilii Constantinop.* 2. *collatione* 4. *in excerpto* 53. *e Theodori Mopsuest. libro* 13 *de incarnatione* (*ap. Mansium vol.* 9. *pag.* 221.) *latine habent :* Qui manifestatus est in carne, justificatus est in spiritu. *De Patribus vero b)* græcis, *observandum est :* 1) *Antiquissimis temporibus rarissime hunc locum a Patribus excitatum esse, ne contra Arianos quidem, initio controversiæ Arianæ. Nec Cyr. Alex provocat ad h. l. contra Iulianum Imp. negantem Iesum a Paulo unquam appellatum fuisse Deum : neque vocabulum* θεός *opponit Nestorio.* 2) *Ad Christum referri potuit hoc dictum a Patribus, sive* ὃ *legerent sive* ὃς, *ut a Latinis factum hoc esse jam notavimus. Hinc Christum ipsum nonnulli* μυστήριον *nominare solebant, et scribere potuit v. c. Iustinus ad Diognet :* ἀπέστειλε λόγον ἵνα κόσμῳ φανῇ, ὃς δι᾽ ἀποστόλων κηρυχθεὶς ὑπὸ ἐθνῶν ἐπιστεύθη. *Orig. c. Cels.* 3. ἰησοῦς ἐν δόξῃ ἀναλαμβάνεσθαι λέγεται. *Idem in Rom.* 1. 2. *interprete Rufino :* Is qui Verbum caro factus apparuit positus in carne, sicut apostolus dicit, quia (*fortasse* qui) manifastatus est in carne justificatus *etc. Theodotus epitom* 18. ὁ σωτὴρ ὤφθη κατιὼν τοῖς ἀγγέλοις. *Basil. Ep.* 65. τοῦ μεγάλου μυστηρίου ὅτι ὁ κύριος ἐφανερώθη ἐν σαρκί *Ergo simili ratione scribere etiam potuit Ignat. ad. Eph.* θεοῦ ἀνθρωπίνως φανερουμένου. *Auctor Constitut apost.* 7. 26. θεὸς κύριε ὁ ἐπιφανεὶς ἡμῖν ἐν σαρκί. *Hippol. c. Noet.* 17 οὗτος προελθὼν εἰς κόσμον θεὸς ἐν σώματι (*sed* θεὸς καὶ ἄνθρωπος *idem ap. Theodoret.*) ἐφανερώθη. *Gregor. thaumat. s. Apollinaris potius ap. Phot. cod.* 230. *et alii :* θεὸς ἐν σαρκὶ φανερωθείς. *E talibus igitur phrasibus et e locutionum in comitate hoc extantium ad*

Christum applicatione neutiquam colligere licet, patres hosce legisse θεὸς. 3) *Nonnulli patres græci certe non legerunt* θεός. *Clem. Alex. ap. Oecum in h. locum:* μυστήριον μεθ' ἡμῶν εἶδον οἱ ἄγγελοι, τὸν χριστόν. *Cyr. Alex.* (*qui sæpe quidem habet* θεὸς *in Operum editionibus, sed perperam, uti docuimus in Symbolis criticis tom. I. pag. XLIII.*) *de recta fide ad Theodosium:* τὸ μέγα τῆς εὐσεβείας μυστήριον, τουτέστι χριστὸς, ὃς ἐφανερώθη — — οἶμαι οὐχ ἕτερον τὸ τῆς εὐσ· μυστήριον, ἢ αὐτὸς ἡμῶν ὁ ἐκ τοῦ θεοῦ πατρὸς λόγος, ὃς ἐφανερώθη *etc. et ad Regin.* 1. τίς ὁ ἐν σαρκὶ φανερωθείς; ἢ δήλον ὅτι παντη τε καὶ πάντως ὁ ἐκ θεοῦ πατρὸς λόγος. οὕτω γὰρ ἔσται μέγα τὸ τῆς εὐσεβείας μυστήριον. *et de Adorat:* ἐν ἑκάστῳ στύλῳ χριστὸς τῆς ἐκκλησίας τὸ ἔρεισμα καὶ τῆς ἀληθείας ἑδραίωμα, κατὰ τὴν τοῦ παύλου φωνήν. *Idem Cyr. legit* ὃς *in explanatione anathematismi* 2 *ms. et in catenis codicum* 16. 20. 22. 27. *etc. et ap. Marium Merc. et Photium ms. et Oecumenium.* 4) *Nonnulli qui pro lectione* θεὸς. *laudari solent, aut perperam afferuntur, aut non extra dubitationem positi sunt, e. gr. Athan ad Serap. ep.* 4. *et de Incarnat. t.* 3. *p* 33. *Sed in priori loco codices plerique ea omittunt verba, quæ huc trahi solent. Oratio vero de Incarnat. Athanasii non est. De Cyr. Alex. modo diximus. Atque huc referendus etiam esse videtur Gregorius Nyss. cui editores quidem attribuunt* θεὸς ἐφανερώθη, *qui vero in Antirrhet. adv. Appollinar. p.* 138. τὸ μυστήριον *ait* ἐν σαρκὶ ἐφανερώθη· καλῶς τοῦτο λέγων· οὗτος ὁ ἡμέτερος λόγος. *Itaque* ὁ *legisse videtur, aut etiam* ὃς. 5) θεὸς *omnino legerunt Chrys. Theodoret. Damasc. Oecum. Theophyl.* 6) ὃς *legerunt Cyr. Alex. et Theodor. Mopsuest* (*de quibus, ut et de Hieron jam diximus,*) *Epiph. Gelas. Cyzicen. s. Macar. hieros. ap Gelas. in actis concilii Nicæni Libr.* 2. *cap.* 23. *teste Welst.* (*sed concil. Harduini tomo i. p* 418. *vel Mansii vol.* 2. *pag.* 871. *habetur* ὃ *gr. et lat.*) *Præterea sermo inter opera Chrys. t.* 10. *p.* 764. ὁμολογουμένως μέγα ἐστὶ τὸ τῆς εὐσεβείας μυστήριον· ὤφθη ἀγγέλοις, ἐπιστεύθη ἐν κόσμῳ — αὐτῷ ἡ δόξα. *Tandem* ὃς *habuerunt codices eorum, qui Macedonium sub Anastasio Imp.* ὃς *in* θεὸς *mutasse narrarunt* 7) ὃ *occurrit ap. Gelas. Cyzic. l c. et in Serm. de incarnat. inter opera Chrys. t.* 8. *p.* 214. *Apud Cyrill. Scythopol. legitur:* ἐν ιερουσαλὴμ τὸ μέγα τῆς εὐσεβείας ἐφανερώθη μυστήριον. *Adde Gregorium Nyss. l. c.*

'*B. Si trium istarum lectionum bonitatem in se spectare velimus,* 1) *ex unaquaque sensum elici posse bonum, imo eundem, deprehendemus.* 2) *Lectio* ὃς *difficilior est et insolentior cæteris.* 3) *E lectione* ὃς *reliquarum ortus optime explicari potest. Nimirum* ΟΣ *facile transiit in* ΘΣ, *cum librarii non ignorarent, locum hunc vulgo de* θεῷ λόγῳ *intelligi. Similiter e* μυστήριον ΟΣ *facillime ortum est* μυστήριον Ο. *Contra vero, si* ΘΣ, *quod Christianorum pæne omnium persuasioni valde consentaneum erat et satis planum esse videbatur, genuinum fuisset, nemo inde effinxisset* Ο, *vix quisquam* ΟΣ. *Nec credibile est, ex* θεὸς, *omissa a festinante librario syllaba priore, paginam aut lineam præcedentem forsan terminante, factum esse* ὃς: *nam ab antiquissimis inde temporibus, quod sciamus,* θεὸς *constanter scriptum fuit* ΘΣ, *in quo scribendi compendio librariis notissimo nemo facile errare potuit. Ac si vel maxime scriba aliquis vocabulum* θεὸς *quatuor literis exarare consuevisset, sine dubio tamen compendium istud usurpasset, sicubi in paginæ aut lineæ fine spatii angustia duas duntaxat literas admisisset. Tandem, si* ὃ *primitivam scripturam fuisse sumas, difficulter explicare poteris, quomodo* ὃς *ex illo enatum sit. — Ergo, si fortuito casu et e librariorum negligentia lectionis varietas enata est,* ὃς *recte profertur; sin consulto textus mutatus*

fuit

fuit certe Θεὸς *quam maxime suspectum est. Confirmatur hoc eorum librorum, in quibus primitiva scriptura secundis curis immutata est, nimirum codicum AC et D. exemplo. In nullo horum* Θεὸς *transmutatum fuit in* ὃ *vel* ὃς; *sed potius ex* ὃς *aut* ὁ *correctores effinxerunt* Θεὸς.'

Moy.

III. No verse of that part of the sacred text which is comprised in the present volume has been the subject of so much dispute as the celebrated text relative to the three heavenly witnesses, 1 John v. 7. Dr. GRIESBACH devotes a long *diatribe* to this subject in the Appendix; so long, that it precludes us from attempting any abridgment or analysis of it. We can only report the commencement and the result. The passage itself is thus exhibited:

Ὅτι τρεῖς εἰσιν οἱ μαρτυροῦντες [ἐν τῷ οὐρανῷ, ὁ πατὴρ, ὁ λόγος, καὶ τὸ ἅγιον πνεῦμα· καὶ οὗτοι οἱ τρεῖς ἓν εἰσι. Καὶ τρεῖς εἰσιν οἱ μαρτυροῦντες ἐν τῇ γῇ] τὸ πνεῦμα, καὶ τὸ ὕδωρ, καὶ τὸ αἷμα· καὶ οἱ τρεῖς εἰς τὸ ἕν εἰσιν.

He then adds: '*Quæ uncis inclusimus, spuria sunt, ideoque e sacro contextu eliminanda.*' In justification of this decided rejection, he brings *a cloud of witnesses*, subjoins also the testimonies in favour of retaining the disputed passage, and concludes the discussion with the following judicious remarks:

'*Si tam pauci, dubii, suspecti, recentes testes, et argumenta tam levia, sufficerent ad demonstrandam lectionis cujusdam* γνησιότητα, *licet obstent tam multa tamque gravia et testimonia et argumenta: nullum prorsus superesset in re critica veri falsique criterium, et* textus Novi Testamenti universus plane incertus est atque dubius *Ego quidem, si tanti esset, sexcentas lectiones ab omnibus rejectas atque futilissimas defendere possem, testimoniis et rationibus æque multis atque validis, imo pluribus plerumque atque validioribus, quam sunt ea quibus utuntur hujus dicti patroni; nec haberent genuini textus defensores tot tantaque argumenta quæ conatui meo inani opponere possent, quot quantaque fautoribus hujus Dicti supra opposita sunt. Hoc velim probe perpendant qui novam fortasse commatis istius defensionem in se suscipere volent, licet nuper Knittelii acumen, Hezelii sagacitas et Travisii* ζῆλος (*sed οὐ κατ' ἐπίγνωσιν ideoque a Viris doctissimis, Porsono et Marshio, ut par erat, repressus ac castigatus,*) *in vindicando hoc versu frustra irritoque conatu* (*ut postmodum Hezelius, utpote Vir veri amantissimus, ultro et ingenue professus ipse est,*) *elaboraverint.*'

Moy.

A dissertation on the authenticity of this verse has been lately added by our learned countryman, Mr. Butler, to a second edition of the 2d part of his *Horæ Biblicæ* *; in which the reader will find an account of the interesting controversies to which this verse has given rise. Mr. Butler dwells on the argument brought by the advocates of the verse in its

* Just published, with some other tracts, of which we intend shortly to take farther notice.

favour, from its being inserted in the Confession of Faith presented by the Catholic Bishops to *Hunneric* the Arian king. On this head, Dr. GRIESBACH observes 'that it cannot be proved, and it is highly improbable, that all the Bishops had so carefully examined the book presented to Hunneric, as to make it clear to each of them, individually, that not one of the hundred citations in that book was in his copy;—and that, if the verse were inserted in the single copy of the writer of the Confession, or in a single copy put into his hand, the other Bishops might not have opposed it, and thus it might have found its place in the Confession.' This appears to us rather a violent induction; and we can scarcely suspect that, in a public document presented under such circumstances, the Bishops would have ventured on a pious fraud, liable to so easy and so immediate a detection.—The circumstance, however, forms an important branch of the controversy; and we wish that it were cleared up. It appears to us that the first thing to be done, and which hitherto has been strangely neglected, is to ascertain by an examination of manuscripts, whether the verse really were inserted in the Confession. If a literary communication with the continent should be again opened, (and what friend of literature, in any part of the world, does not devoutly wish for this consummation of the present state of things?) we hope that such an examination will take place.

This edition of Dr. GRIESBACH's work is printed in octavo, but we understand that an impression of the whole is now printing at Leipsic in royal quarto, with a beautiful type, to be completed in four volumes; two only of which are at present published; the first appeared in 1803, the second in 1804. The Duke of Grafton has munificently defrayed the whole expense of the edition before us; and a few copies, not for sale, have been printed on large paper.

But.

See pp. 501, 3, 6.

ART. XIII. *Vertrante Briefe*, &c.; *i. e.* Confidential Letters on the internal Relations of the Court of Prussia, since the Death of Frederic II. 8vo. pp. 296. Amsterdam and Cologne. 1807.

THE sudden and total fall of Prussia has created among us as much astonishment, as the unexpected proofs of her strength excited fifty years ago. The events of the three closing months of 1806 are documents of the weakness of Prussia, rather than of the power of her enemy; whose chief is said to have expressed his doubt, when during his stay at Berlin almost daily new accounts of the surrender of fortresses or the submission of Prussian corps were brought to him, whether

ther he ought to rejoice at or be ashamed of advantages so easily obtained. Though an impartial consideration of the intrinsic strength of the Prussian dominions, and of the conduct of her government since the commencement of the war against France in 1792, must have greatly dispersed the dazzling appearance which the genius of her second Frederic had spred around her, yet she was deemed capable of maintaining her honour, and of procuring favorable terms of peace even from a superior enemy; instead of which, we have heard it declared, in less than twelve months after the commencement of the late war, that her very existence among the continental powers is to be considered as a proof of courtesy and forbearance. The causes of this rapid succession of disasters and disgrace must not be sought in a few persons, nor in temporary circumstances, but in the nature of the government itself, and in the army. We must look for a gradation in the decline of that vigour and energy, which had given to Prussia a rank among the powers of Europe, to which neither the extent of her dominions nor her population could intitle her. It is yet too early to expect a thoroughly impartial and satisfactory account of all the circumstances, which prepared and contributed to the necessity of submitting to the conditions of the peace of Tilsit; and in the mean time we attend with pleasure to such collections of facts as may, when sifted, afford some clue for an explanation of the late events.

On these grounds, the letters before us have more claim to our attention, than we should allow them as a literary production. It is not high praise to say that they are written with as much impartiality as we are now accustomed to expect, or perhaps with more, in the productions of the German press on political subjects. At any rate, they contain various melancholy truths, and are neither composed nor published to please a party; and the author, who is a Prussian, assures us that he has collected his materials on the spot. While he severely reprobates the conduct of the court of Berlin, he always speaks the language of a patriot and a loyal subject, who feels for the loss of national honor and for his king, and considers the progress of the French as both unjust and injurious to the welfare of Europe. Though intirely averse, also, to the influence of Great Britain on the continent, he decidely controverts the rumours circulated by the French and their party, respecting the influence of English gold on those who supported the last war. His observations display the man of knowlege and sound judgment; yet they are often disgraced by a levity of style, which lessens our confidence in his statements and opinions. We also wish that he had more frequently

quently stated his authorities, particularly when he relates anecdotes of the principal persons at the court of Berlin, in order to enable us to distinguish authentic relations from mere reports.

The first four letters give a short account of the principles of the government of Frederic II. Of the reign of that great king the writer is, like almost all Prussians, a warm admirer; and he endeavours to persuade us that all the measures adopted by him were wise and salutary, as being best adapted to the peculiar circumstances of time and place: but he also admits, and indeed we think that it cannot be doubted, that the system of Frederic II. was unfit to last a considerable time; that during the latter years of his reign, it had already lost in a great measure its efficacy; and that its spirit alone, viz. energy and union of all departments in one centre, ought to have been preserved, while its form should have been judiciously altered according to the external and internal relations of the country. Altogether an opposite course, however, was pursued during the reign of the dissipated Frederic William II.; who, under the influence of women, ministers of pleasure, and fanatics, soon abandoned the reins of government to those who best understood how to impose on him. In the cabinet, a total change took place; the tried statesman and friend of Frederic, *Hertzberg*, lost his influence; and *Bischofswerder*, a Rosencrucian, assumed his seat. In the various departments of the government, and in the provinces, different principles were adopted; the moral corruption, descending from the throne, was diffused through all classes of subjects: while the government exposed itself to disaffection and contempt, by an absurd attempt to preserve the antient orthodoxy of the church and people by severe restrictions and exclusions. The letter-writer observes on this subject:

'At the time of Frederic William's death, Prussia presented an imposing aspect merely in some faint remains of the lustre which Frederic II. had shed round her by means of a dazzling exterior. Within, her main props were decayed. The treasure, on which the strength of the military force is founded, had not only been uselessly lavished, but a debt of 42 millions of dollars had been contracted; and the army was become thoroughly corrupt. Frederic persevered to the end of his days in the practice of raising none but nobles to the rank of officers, supposing that they alone possessed a sense of honour, and refinement of understanding; yet he encouraged the sciences by granting full liberty to the press; knowlege found easier access among the people of the *tiers état* than among the nobles; and the latter, proud of privileges which they had inherited but not deserved, abandoned themselves to dissipation, and cultivated neither the military art nor any branch of science. Thus the army was in 1778 already so much vitiated, that the king was constantly out of humour

humour at the irregularities which occurred under his eyes; and the reason of which he was unable to discover, because he understood not the times in which he lived. He concluded a peace from apprehension of being defeated and of surviving his glory. The reign of Frederic William increased the evil. The court set the example of all that may be called luxury, dissipation, and total neglect of decency, the capital joined, and the provinces soon followed; the officers, proud and arrogant, intent only on sensual pleasures, became the most ignorant persons in the nation; while sloth and vice, followed by enervation, rendered them unfit even for the usual exercises, and totally useless for war. The Generals degraded the army to a plaything; and they instructed the cavalry in such exercises as Spanish equestrians practise in order to amuse the public, by turning and wheeling like the infantry in a small space.'

Of the state of the public morals in Berlin and other large towns in the Prussian dominions, such a hideous picture is drawn in these letters, that, though we have heard much of the corruption of the Prussian capital from other quarters, and are sensible of the baleful influence of large garrisons, we cannot but think that the author has made use of too strong colours. Certainly he has committed the fault, which we often notice in travellers, of drawing a general conclusion respecting the state of morals in a town or country from the scenes which are witnessed in public places; and of giving credit to the boasting reports of votaries to sensual pleasure, who are so apt to represent all the world around them as like themselves, or as ready to minister to their desires. If Berlin were the modern Sybaris before the war, what must it be now, after a long visit from a French army?

The character of the present king is drawn, we believe, with great justice and candour. He possesses all the qualities which render a man respectable and amiable in private life, but few or none of those which are requisite for a throne, particularly in such critical times as the present. The author attributes this defect in a great measure to an inadequate education:

'Neglected both by father and mother, his education was left to a misanthrope, M. *Benisch*; whose aversion to juvenile mirth, and whose constant gloom, altered the prince's disposition, which was naturally mild and amiable, and made him reserved, embarrassed in the presence of others, and diffident of himself.

'Nothing but the most energetic measures can restore the nation: but the government acts like a tender sentimental surgeon in the cure of a cancer. Even the sound flesh must not be spared, in order to check the spreading evil; yet, when the knife is actually applied, and the patient cries out, immediately the operator throws away the instrument, puts soothing ointment on the wound, and covers it. The poison thus acts inwardly, and the whole body is infected.'

A similar

A similar want of firmness and self-confidence led to that system of neutrality by which Prussia confessed her weakness, and drew on herself the just contempt and hatred of all parties. There were two factions in the country, one wishing for war, the other for an alliance with France; the king, urged by both, took a middle course, and continued neutral.—We perfectly agree with the writer of these letters, that any conduct was better than a neutrality, chosen and maintained with so much weakness. The monarch is said not to have been blind to the declining state of his kingdom, but to have exclaimed, when he saw proofs of disorder, or impositions practised on his best intentions: "Why has God made me a king?"

This writer's account of the transactions between France and Prussia, concerning the cession of Anspach and the rupture with England, excites our indignation against that power which preyed on the weakness of her neighbour, and our pity for that which fell a victim to its own timidity. When at last the wishes of the queen, who, it is here asserted, now for the first time took a part in state-affairs, from a real sense of danger; when the general discontent of the people shewed itself in more frequent marks of contempt for the throne; and when a letter came from the Marquis *Lucchesini*, Prussian ambassador at Paris, in which he begged the king not to rely on the promises of Bonaparte;—when these circumstances at last almost forced the king to declare againt France, the consequences of the vacillating conduct of the government appeared in those divisions among the courtiers and officers, which may be said to have led, at least in a great degree, to the dissasters of Jena. Respecting that unfortunate day, these letters add some interesting details to the information which we have already received, if we may place perfect confidence in them. Much of the blame is thrown on the commander in chief, much on the jealousies of those who served under him, and some on the bad state of the troops. The Duke of Brunswick possessed not the confidence of his brother Generals, and neglected completely to inform himself of the movements of the enemy; while the latter were acquainted with every resolution that was taken in the military council at Weimar. A circumstance is added which we cannot believe, that the king had been too scrupulous to employ spies.—At Jena and Auerstadt, says the author, there was not an army, but several divisions acting without concert; every General followed his own plans.

The commanders of those strong places, which might have checked the progress of the enemy, but surrendered after little

or no resistance, are exposed to the deserved contempt or detestation of their fellow citizens; while a just tribute of praise is paid to the zeal and patriotism of the inhabitants of Silesia. So panic-struck was the government, however, after the first defeat, that the noble offers of the Silesians to form a defence of their own country seem to have been slighted.—Much has been said of the servile conduct of the inhabitants of Berlin, after the occupation of that capital by the French; and we are sorry to find the charge supported by undeniable facts. As a contrast, however, to the zeal with which some of the magistrates of Berlin endeavoured to exceed the wishes of their new masters, we find pleasure in noticing the dignified manner in which the members of the Royal Chamber at Glogau replied to a demand of the French General, *Bertrand*, to take the oath of allegiance to his master: "As our sovereign, the king of Prussia," said they, "has not absolved us from the oath of allegiance which we have taken to him, you must be convinced that we cannot with good consciences take an oath contrary to our former; you yourself would despise our meanness, and consider us as unfit for our station. We will endeavour to obtain a livelihood in any other way than by becoming guilty of perjury." General *Bertrand* felt the strength of the reply, and was satisfied with an assurance that they would do nothing to the injury of the French armies.

We learn at the end of the volume, with which we have thus endeavoured to make our readers acquainted, that a continuation of the Letters is promised, for the purpose of commenting on the events of the war since the beginning of this year; and we are assured that the author has been collecting his materials on the theatre of action. In this second volume, he designs also to correct those errors which he may discover in the first. He still cherished a hope that the honour and fortune of his country might be retrieved: but, alas, this hope has vanished, and the Prussian eagle will probably never soar again. In the darkness in which the opposite and scanty accounts of contending parties leave us, we shall receive with gratitude, though with due caution, the light that an eye-witness may throw on events in which we are interested not only as men but as patriots.

Schw.

ART.

ART. XIV. *Traité Elémentaire de Physique*, &c. *i. e.* An Elementary Treatise on Physics. By the Abbé HAÜY. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 870, with 12 Plates. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 18s. sewed.

IT is a circumstance which has often provoked remark, that the compilation of elementary books in this country is generally consigned to inferior writers; while on the Continent of Europe, men the most eminent for science have not disdained to employ their talents in preparing such useful works. This difference arises, perhaps, from the inveterate character of our academical establishments; and from the total neglect which goverment has always shewn to the business of general education. Fortunately, however, the spirit of commercial activity, which animates this island, affords some antidote against that prevailing disposition to resist all attempts at improvement, which, were it allowed to operate in its full extent, would plunge us again in ignorance and barbarism. For the diffusion of liberal knowlege, we are now chiefly indebted to the wealth and enterprize of independent booksellers.

In Germany, almost every University continues to produce elementary treatises in each department of learning, which appear to possess very considerable merit. These *handbuchs*, or *manuals*, though designed by the professors for the immediate use of their students, exhibit the principles of science in a correct and compendious shape, and seem well calculated for promoting the instruction of the public at large. A judicious selection and abridged translation of such pieces might form an excellent *course of study*, and would, we think, prove a most acceptable addition to our stock of literature.

The French language, also, contains a variety of elementary works of science, remarkable for the taste and skill displayed in their composition: but the multiplied improvements made in every part of knowlege required, after an interval of suspension, a more liberal and extensive digest, suited to the new order of things, and subservient to the great system of education which Napoleon has ordained for the subjects of his populous empire. The treatise now before us is one of the first of the series undertaken at the command of that extraordinary man, whose genius and fortune have changed the face of Europe. The task has been executed in a manner not unworthy of the author of the *Traité de Minéralogie*; and when we reflect how rare it is to succeed in the composition of an elementary work, we may be inclined to refer the merit, however different in kind, to the same order at least as that

of original invention. The first edition of M. Haüy's work, was prepared on a short notice, and the copies of it seem to have been very quickly dispersed. We do not regret that the obstruction of intercourse with the Continent has prevented us from noticing it till the second edition was actually received; since it is more deserving of our approbation, being throughout amended and greatly enlarged.

In the preliminary discourse, M. Haüy particularly mentions the opportunity which republication has given him of explaining those interesting and important facts relative to the propagation of heat, which the beautiful experiments of Count *Rumford* and Professor Leslie have lately disclosed. His book is written with evident care, and not without some portion of elegance, and it delineates the various phænomena of nature in a very clear and pleasing form. With respect to the order of arrangement, we might find some fault: but we cannot help applauding the neatness, perspicuity, and precision which constantly shine forth in the details. If the author introduces hypotheses oftener than becomes the sobriety of inductive philosophy, he holds them with a loose hand, and seems only to sport with them for the entertainment of his readers. This object, indeed, he has always in view, and he discovers great address in the methods employed for attaining that end. Sometimes, he engages our attention by blending pertinent reflections; sometimes he creates interest by applying abstract principles to the exposition of familiar appearances; and at other times he enlivens his discourse by occasional digressions, and short historical notices. In the construction of these narratives, he shews the utmost candour in assigning discoveries to their proper authors, and every where evinces a disposition rather to bestow praise than to attach blame. In spite of the national jealousies, which have been so meanly excited, he renders justice to the merits of English philosophers, and uniformly treats our illustrious compatriot, Sir Isaac Newton, with a sort of idolatry. To the celebrated *La Place*, he expresses, in the courtly language of flattery, his obligations for the valuable hints and remarks suggested by him in the course of conversation. These contributions, however, we are not inclined to estimate thus highly. We respect the very superior endowments of that profound mathematician, and bear willing testimony to the variety and extent of his information: but nothing that we have yet seen is sufficient to persuade us that his acquaintance with metaphysics, and with the philosophy of chemistry, is in exact proportion to the skill and ingenuity which he has displayed in exploring the recesses of astronomical science. In one respect, M. Haüy does not imitate

imitate his distinguished friend, who would consider the phænomena of the universe as the *necessary* result of the eternal and immutable constitution of things. The Abbé, in a tone more consonant to the dictates of sound philosophy, and better suited to his original profession and the office which he now holds of Honorary Canon in the metropolitan Church of Paris, marks those striking instances of design which bespeak the existence of a Supreme Intelligent Cause.

M. Haüy begins his work with some excellent remarks on the divisions of natural science, and the most advantageous mode of prosecuting that important study. His ideas concerning the utility and the limits of theory are perfectly just:—but it is painful to observe that the true principles of inductive philosophy have been at no period better understood, and yet more generally disregarded, than at the present. The brilliant discoveries made in electricity, and more recently in Galvanism and chemistry, having attracted a crowd of amateurs, the flimsy hypotheses which have in consequence been engendered, during the infancy of these popular sciences, appear to have debauched the mind, and to have fatally diverted it from the strictness of geometrical reasoning.

The general properties of bodies are referred to Extension, Mobility, Impenetrability, and Divisibility. No substance is absolutely solid, but must contain vacuities or pores. This is well illustrated by the property of the *hydrophane*, a species of agate, which, on being immersed in water, absorbs about one eighth part of its weight, and becomes transparent. The insensible perspiration from the surface of the skin, first detected by the celebrated *Sanctorio*, likewise proves with what minute pores that integument is covered.—*Inertia* forms an essential character of matter, and the term is undoubtedly more correct than the compound expression *vis inertiæ*, commonly used in England. It was employed by the antients to denote that reluctance to motion and that inseparable tendency to rest, which, from inaccurate observation, they were induced to ascribe to bodies. *Kepler*, regarding it as a fact which had not been disputed for so many ages, saw that it manifestly implied an active principle, and for that reason he prefixed the word *vis*:—but, since Galileo discovered the true law of motion, the primary term has become most appropriate, and represents the mere passive condition of matter. To state simply the fact of that absolute indifference to change might appear enough; and the laboured attempts of *La Place* to explain the principle of it are not likely to afford much satisfaction.—*Impenetrability* belongs to matter, yet bodies are capable of having their bulk altered. This fact especially appears in chemical

combinations, where a contraction generally takes place. Thus copper fused with zinc forms brass, which is about one tenth part denser than the mean of its ingredients. The particles of matter are likewise capable of being separated from each other, and no limit is assigned to the degree of subdivision which can be attained. Mica splits into plates of surprising thinness; and the gold beater carries his art to an extent that almost passes belief: but the diffusion of odorous substances through the air demonstrates a minuteness of partition which no powers of calculation can reach.

Bodies and their component elements are connected by the forces of *attraction* and *repulsion*, of which the latter is exerted only at small distances; while the former seems to pervade, though with decreasing energy, the boundless regions of space. The extension of this principle, and the discovery of its law of action, form the solid basis of the Newtonian system of the universe. The general force of attraction is rightly denominated *gravity*, being only the *weight* of each particle affected, or its tendency to move towards the common centre. This statement leads to an explication of the descent of heavy bodies, and of the law of their accelerated motion near the surface of the earth, as discovered by Galileo. The transition is natural to the subject of specific gravity; and M. Haüy takes occasion to relate the history of Archimedes's invention, and to explain the use and improved construction of the hydrostatic balance. In illustration of the subject, he instances the air-bladder in fishes; remarking, however, after an observation of *Geoffroy*, that in certain families the stomach also performs the same function, and, by dilating or contracting its volume, enables them to mount or descend.

One of the nicest applications of the problem of specific gravity was to determine the unit in the new system of weights and measures lately established in France. M. Haüy relates the fundamental operations, notices the various precautions that were used, and describes at great length the nature and adaptation of the system thus erected. Yet we question whether it will ever realize the sanguine expectations of its projectors. Even in France its existence, we understand, is merely nominal: it has not found its way into the mercantile transactions of that country; and such is the sway of prejudice, where no jarring interests interfere, that, however desirable the event might be, we despair of seeing it become the common language of philosophers.

As a branch of general attraction, the author next proceeds to treat of the force that unites the integrant molecules of bodies, and takes an opportunity to explain the ideas of the

celebrated *La Place* concerning the mode of action which obtains in the phænomena of chemical affinity. We need not stop, however, to examine that gratuitous hypothesis, which appears clumsy and mechanical, and is obviously repugnant to all observation. The conclusions which *Berthollet*, guided by the sure light of experiment, has formed on that subject, are infinitely more valuable. Here we cannot avoid expressing our surprize that the sublime *theory* of *Boscovich*, the happiest improvement achieved in corpuscular philosophy since the time of Newton, should remain unknown or overlooked among such an ingenious people as the French. By considering all matter as only a collection of physical points endued with attractive or repulsive powers, that vary with a certain relation or *function* of the distance, the chief difficulties which embarrass the subject are removed, and our researches into the constitution and properties of bodies are greatly facilitated. It is only by cultivating this fine theory that we can ever hope to develope the balancing forces, and to explain the nice play of affinities which are the objects of Chemical Statics.

After having made a few remarks on the properties of solid bodies that seem to depend on affinity,—their hardness, elasticity, and ductility,—M. HAÜY enters on a province which is peculiarly his own, that of Crystallization; and he gives a neat abstract of the interesting observations and discoveries on which he has founded his arrangement of minerals. We shall barely trace the outlines of that celebrated theory.

Every crystal may, with a little dexterity, be decompounded, by splitting it in the direction of its natural joints. The *nucleus* thus extracted is constant for each distinct species of substance; that is, though its angles may differ widely, it always retains the same number of sides; and, where such variations occur, it will be found, by a new process of dissection, to contain within itself another nucleus exactly similar to the original type. The number of these *primitive forms*, as hitherto detected, amounts only to six; namely, the tetrahedron, the parallelopepid, the octahedron, the hexahedral prism, and two species of dodecahedrons, the one composed of equal and similar rhombs, and the other of two straight hexahedral pyramids united at their base. Of these six solids, only two are perfectly regular, the tetrahedron, and the hexahedral prism; all the rest of them vary in the measures of their angles, and in the proportions of their sides.

Were the subdivision of the primitive forms carried to its utmost term, we should arrive at what may be called the *integrant molecules;* from which, as from salient points, the crystallizing power, by successive laminar additions, raises its superstructure.

perstructure. These accretions we may conceive to be made in receding layers, like the steps of stairs or courses of bricks; and it is evident that the angle of the slope will vary according to the relative breadth of the step, or the number of retiring courses compared with the tiers of ascent. This proportion of exterior gradation is termed the *law of decrements*, and, though considerably diversified, it seldom requires numbers greater than eight to express it; in other words, the parallel plates of accretion rarely exceed eight molecules in thickness, or suffer successive retreats beyond that measure. The decrements are consequently either simple or compound, and they may proceed indifferently from the edges or the angles of the nucleus, or from both at once. A multitude of different forms may thus arise out of very limited principles; and if we take into the account the variety of the original nucleus itself, we strive in vain to conceive the number of possible crystals thence derived by superstructure.

Of this elegant theory, the rudiments were first traced by the celebrated *Bergman:* but it was reserved for the ingenuity of Haüy to follow up the investigation, and by the help of a skilful calculus, to deduce all the various modifications of external appearance from the same primitive form. The results thus obtained are in many cases remarkably happy. It would be rash, however, where so much assumption prevails, to regard such coincidences as establishing more than the mere probability of the theory of the geometrical structure of crystals. The desideratum still remains, to explain by what system of forces these corpuscular arrangements are produced. Regular crystals are constantly terminated by plane surfaces, and never shew the tendency to curved boundaries which we might expect from the law of continuity. The power of aggregation, therefore, does not vary by infinite shadings, but alters with the distance by sudden starts. Each distinct substance, it is highly probable, has its fixed and appropriate crystal; and all the various derivative or secondary forms seem to be occasioned merely by the influence of some disturbing cause, or by some slight alteration in the chemical or internal constitution of the body. Thus alum generally has octahedral crystals: but, with a small increase of its earthy basis, it crystalizes in cubes. Common salt, in a solution in water, forms cubic crystals; dissolved in urine, it deposites regular octahedrons. When the science of Crystallography is farther advanced, we shall be able perhaps to discover such minute variations in the constitution of bodies as at present escape the most delicate analysis.

Viewing all matter as upheld by the opposite powers of attraction

traction and repulsion, M. HAÜY refers the latter principle wholly to the fluid of heat, and treats of the modern doctrine of caloric with an extension proportioned to the importance of the subject. Our limits will not permit us to follow the discussion, and therefore we shall only make a few cursory remarks.—That species or modification of heat, which *Scheele* has termed *radiant*, presents certainly the most curious and difficult object of investigation. Very little, in any degree precise, was known respecting it, till the subject was explored by the sagacity of our countryman Leslie, whose beautiful and conclusive experiments will form an epoch in the history of science. With that profound inquirer, the present author indeed associates the ingenious Count *Rumford*; who, under very suspicious circumstances, has published results nearly similar: but we are confident that no person, who chuses to avow his sentiments, would hesitate, after what has passed, to assign the exclusive merit of those dicoveries to Mr. Leslie. The *priority* of his claim is unquestionable; and Count *Rumford* has not attempted to deny or elude the statement which the Professor has given in a letter inserted in our Review for Oct. 1805, p. 223. That the Count *appropriated* the chief instrument of discovery, —Mr. Leslie's differential thermometer,—is notorious; and after he had given this sample of address, it would require no ordinary portion of charity to believe that, amid such multiplied opportunities of information, he would scruple to adopt any hints for repeating the leading experiments of a rival.

Though the Abbé HAÜY, however, is too much of a courtier for the exercise of distributive justice, yet, in other respects, he fairly appreciates Mr. Leslie's merits, and gives a very clear view of the more popular parts at least of his celebrated work on Heat. Yet he does not adopt the theory proposed by that philosopher, and is rather inclined to rest satisfied with some vague notions of a radiating calorific fluid, like that of light. The objections which he urges seem not to have great weight, and evidently betray an imperfect comprehension of the Professor's arguments. We have no right to assume that heat can be transmitted through a perfect vacuum. On the contrary, the power of communication, in the receiver of an air-pump, has been shewn to diminish regularly as the exhaustion proceeds. Mr. Leslie has likewise proved that what we call radiant heat is incapable of passing, not only through solids, but through water and other liquid substances; in short, that the elastic fluids are the only media for its propagation;—and since these fluids, it is ascertained, do not convey such heat by actual transfer, the only alternative which appears to be left is to admit with him that they perform their function by

means of a certain pulsatory energy analogous to that by which the impressions of sound are transmitted. This ingenious theory needs only some illustration; and we hope that its philosophic author, when he returns to the charge, will not disdain to give it a more popular shape, or neglect to confirm it by farther experiments.

Another circumstance manifests that M. Haüy had not studied with due attention the work now mentioned; for he regards the law of cooling bodies, first pointed out by Newton, as accurately established: but Mr. Leslie has demonstrated its incorrectness, in one of the most ingenious and elaborate parts of his Inquiry, in which he analyses the several sources of the dissipation of heat. The rate of cooling is not exactly as the difference of temperature, but follows a higher ratio; insomuch that, with an elevation of temperature equal to the interval between boiling and freezing water, a metallic vessel cools nearly twice as fast as, and a glass vessel three times faster than the Newtonian law would indicate. The mention of this law was perhaps made by M. Haüy for the purpose of relating the method lately used by *Biot* for determining, from experiment and calculation, the higher degrees of heat, by the help of an iron-bar, one end of which is inserted in the fire while the rest is left exposed. This scheme, however, is by no means new. It was proposed many years ago by *Lambert*, one of the most ingenious and original philosophers on the Continent, and some of the results are published in his *Pyrometria*.

We are obliged to pass over the sections which treat of specific heat,—the calorimeter,—the conversion of solids into liquids, and of liquids into elastic fluids,—and shall barely notice what is advanced concerning the relation of heat to the gases and diffusible vapours. *Gay Lussac* and Dalton maintain that all the elastic fluids expand equally by the action of heat. This opinion is not very far from the truth: but more delicate experiments indicate that a sensible difference subsists among them, and therefore overturn the general principle which Mr. Dalton seeks to establish. Nor are the speculations of that ingenious person better founded respecting the combination of gases and their connection with vapours. We have not space for entering on the discussion at this time: but suffice it to say that he not only indulges in loose conjectural reasonings, but that little precision of result can be expected from the rude mode of conducting his experiments. Mr. Dalton's main positions are indeed untenable. It is not true that the gases intermingle without changing their constitution; and the union of vapour with atmospheric air is always attended by a visible augmentation of volume. The notions of that philosopher appear,

appear, in many respects, better suited to the age of *Descartes* than to the present day. We are, therefore, surprized to find *La Place* indirectly lending them his support, by attempting to modify the hypothesis of Dalton and *De Luc* relative to the cause of evaporation. That water is dissolved in air by a chemical process has been clearly proved by the sagacious *Berthollet*; and were it judged necessary, we might adduce other arguments which appear to be irrefragable. This theory, suggested by *Musschenbroeck*, and afterward improved by *Leroi*, is also recommended by its elegant simplicity, and its nice application to the phænomena of nature.

Water, next to heat or fire, performs the most important functions. Like other liquids, it appears not to be capable of compression: but, from its power of transmitting sound, M. Haüy justly infers that it is really compressible, *though in a degree so extremely small as to have hitherto escaped observation.* This assertion, we confess, surprises us; for the Abbé should have known that the question was completely decided, nearly 50 years ago, by Mr. Canton, who found that water suffers from pressure a condensation about 25,000 times less than air does under like circumstances;—and it ought not to have escaped him, that the same result was afterward obtained by Professor *Zimmerman* of Brunswick, from experiments conducted on a grand scale.

The moisture that exists in the atmosphere is the object of Hygrometry. It is commonly measured by the alterations produced on substances which are disposed to attract it. Whalebone and the human hair have been employed for that purpose by *De Luc* and *Saussure*; and M. Haüy describes at great length the construction and application of their hygrometers. These instruments, however, and others of that kind, must be deemed very imperfect attempts; and the only hygrometer, in our estimation, that is grounded on true principles, is the one which was invented by Mr. Leslie. Having demonstrated that the degree of cold induced by evaporation is accurately proportioned to the dryness or the dissolving power of the air, this philosopher very happily employed his differential thermometer for measuring with the utmost delicacy that depression of temperature. The instrument thus formed is elegant, extremely commodious, and, which is of infinite consequence, it invariably speaks the same language.

Capillary action, and its dependant phænomena, are treated by M. Haüy with ample detail: but his main effort seems directed to explain the laborious investigations which *La Place* has lately given relative to that difficult subject. * It may be

* See P. 483 of this Appendix.

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found, however, that the advantage is more specious than real, which can arise from the application of an intricate calculus to such vague and slender data. Supposing the cavity at the top of the fluid column to be the portion of a sphere, we might derive the law of ascent in capillary tubes by easier means. On the other hand, mercury has its upper surface convex, and suffers a depression in narrow bores. M. HAÜY indeed disputes the fact, and alleges the observation of *Lavoisier* and *La Place*, that, by long and frequent boiling, the top of the mercurial column gradually flattens, and at last becomes concave. We know from experience, however, that they were deceived in attempting to carry the process too far; since by continued ebullition the mercury suffers a slight oxydation, and lines the inside of the tube with a yellowish film which overcomes its ordinary cohesion.—The most instructive dissertation on capillary tubes, that we have seen, is one which is reported to have been written also by Mr. Leslie, printed in the Philosophical Magazine about the year 1803, but compressed in that author's manner, and too concise perhaps and too abstract for general reception.

We have not room to notice the other properties of water, and the forces which it developes in its passage to ice and steam. Air performs a part not less important in the œconomy of nature: on it depend the pump, the syphon, and the barometer: which instrument not only marks the pressure of the atmosphere, but serves to measure the height of mountains. The grand phænomena of meteorology are all produced by the modifications of that element; and one of the most curious inventions made in our own times is the art of traversing in balloons the lofty regions of the air. That fluid is also the vehicle of sound; and M. HAÜY explains very fully its mode of propagation, and discusses with equal ability the delicate and complex theory of music.

Electricity forms a most interesting section. The author not only delivers the general principles, but illustrates them with a series of choice and amusing experiments. He appears to be much attached to the ingenious theory of Æpinus: but we do not deem him fortunate in combining with it the supposition of two opposite fluids. In truth, the existence of *any* fluid of electricity is mere assumption, and tends in no respect to assist the explication of the phænomena. The fancy is bewildered in pursuing the motions of an unconfinable fluid.

Galvanism, which has acquired such importance since the remarkable discovery of the Voltaic pile, is a most singular branch of electricity, created only within these few years. M. HAÜY gives a very neat view of its actual state, with the dif-

ferent hypotheses framed to explain the curious facts which it contains. Those lately noticed by *Erman* are the more valuable, because they seem to mark the limits and gradations of electrical influence:—but the recent experiments of our ingenious countryman, Mr. Davy, have disclosed a new train of phænomena, calculated greatly to extend our ideas of Galvanism, and of its agency in chemical analysis*.

Magnetism deservedly occupies a prominent station in the treatise before us. *Coulomb* has ascertained by the aid of his exquisite balance, that both the magnetic and electric forces obey the great law of gravitation, being inversely proportional to the squares of the distances. The vibrations of the needle shew the intensity of the power by which it is directed. This power evidently resides in the mass of our globe, for it betrays no sensible diminution at the greatest height which aeronauts have reached. From two distant observations, M. *Biot* has computed that the magnetic equator makes an angle of about 11° with the equinoctial line, and crosses it beyond the Gallipago Isles in the Pacific Ocean. This excellent geometer has also proved the magnetic poles to be indefinitely near each other, and situated in the centre of the earth. By applying the same beautiful principle of torsion, *Coulomb* has lately discovered that almost every kind of substance is susceptible of the magnetic influence; and that it exists in gold, silver, copper, lead, tin, glass, chalk, animal bones, and different sorts of wood. This unexpected effect is owing most probably to the action of some extremely minute particles of iron disseminated through those bodies; from which by no process can it ever be completely separated. The magnetism observed in nickel and cobalt appears to be derived from the same source.

The last and most elabobate section of the work is devoted to the science of Optics. The copious materials here presented invite criticism: but we have already trespassed so much on the patience of our readers, that we shall conclude this article with a few detached observations.—Though well versant in the history of discovery, M. HAÜY seems to follow the views and speculations of Newton more closely than our improved knowlege of the facts might perhaps warrant. That illustrious philosopher, at times misled by his experiments, could not always resist the illusion of fanciful and mysterious analogies. We allude, in particular, to his harmonic division of the solar spectrum, and to his visionary hypothesis concerning the fits of easy transmission of the rays of light.—On the different re-

* See our Review for September, published with this Appendix, p. 1.

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fractive powers of elastic fluids, some interesting experiments were lately made by *Biot* and *Arrago*, who have ascertained that hydrogen gas refracts six times more than common air. That buoyant gas is thus in every circumstance widely separated from the rest: its tenuity, its capacity for heat, its power of conducting that element, and the energy which it exerts on the rays of the light,—all eminently distinguish it.

Sir Isaac Newton, by a happy conjecture, inferred, from its high refractive power, that the diamond belongs to the class of inflammable substances. M. *Biot* attempts to carry the idea still farther, and proposes to employ the action of bodies on light as a refined instrument of analysis. Assuming the refractive power of a compound to be the mean result of the powers possessed by its constituent parts, on this conjectural basis he founds his calculations. The supposition, however, is contradicted by the uniform language of experiment. Substances lose their distinctive properties in composition, and the changes thence arising are various and undetermined. Indeed, we might as well pretend to discover the constitution of a body from the mere knowlege of the specific gravity of its elements. The nature of the connection which subsists between light and caloric has long engaged the attention, and divided the opinions, of chemical philosophers. *Scheele*, in a general way, pointed out the more obvious distinctions: but the late experiments of Dr. Herschel have opened a wider field, and have led him to form conclusions that seem at variance with the best established facts. Those inferences were opposed, with some warmth, by Mr. Leslie, in one of our periodical publications; who pursued a similar train of investigation, with much greater nicety and apparent caution, by means of his differential thermometer, and the modification of it termed the *photometer*, which M. Haüy likewise describes. He found that the heat of the several coloured spaces, which compose the prismatic spectrum, is proportioned to the square of their distance from the extremity of the most refrangible rays; insomuch that the red rays have 16 times more power in causing heat than the violet rays. This determination differs widely from that which was given by Dr. Herschel, and approaches nearer to the relative measure assigned, so far back as 1775, by the Abbé *Rochon*; with whose observations neither of these gentlemen appears to have been acquainted. Mr. Leslie, however, maintains that, with due precaution, no heat whatever is perceived beyond the extreme limit of the red rays; and therefore he contends that the opinion which our celebrated astronomer has formed concerning the existence of invisible calorific rays is entirely devoid of foundation. This sentiment

ment is, after some discussion, embraced by the Abbé HAÜY; and we have reason to suspect, from all that transpires, that the credit attached to the experiments of Dr. Herschel is rapidly declining, both abroad and at home. When this ingenious but speculative observer maintains, in despite of uniform testimony, that radiant heat is capable of being *refracted*, we may be fairly excused for withholding our implicit assent to others of his statements. The curious experiments of *Ritter* and Wollaston, if accurately considered, will not be found to countenance the opinions which they have been sometimes adduced to support.

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ART. XV. *Histoire des Végétaux*, &c. *i. e.* A History of the Vegetables collected in the Southern Isles of Africa. By AUBERT AUBERT DU PETIT-THOUARS. Part First, containing the Descriptions of those Plants which form new Genera, or complete the old. No. 1. Embellished with six coloured Plates. 4to. pp. 32. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 15s. sewed.

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INCITED by an eager desire to visit distant countries, M. DU PETIT-THOUARS embarked on the 2d of October 1792, for the Isle of France. On his way thither, he passed five days on the desart island of Tristan d'Acunha and fifteen at the Cape of Good Hope. The Isles of France and Bourbon he traversed more leisurely, in all directions, and he made a six month's tour over a limited portion of Madagascar. In the beginning of September 1802, he returned to France.

'More fortunate, (says he) than *Commerson*, and all those whom he enumerates among botanical martyrs, I bring along with me into my native country the fruit of ten years of excursions and fatigues, namely, an herbal of about 2000 plants, and 600 drawings of the most remarkable objects, accompanied with suitable descriptions: all the requisite materials, in short, of the Flora of those countries which I lately inhabited, and it now only remains that I reduce their results into the form of a regular publication.'

The present Fasciculus is intended to serve as a prospectus and specimen of the whole: but the remaining twelve will contain at least four sheets of letter-press and ten plates each. The work is designed to comprize an enumeration of the plants observed, with the descriptions, synonyms, and figures, their known properties and uses, and an elementary course of Botany, adapted to these African colonies, and to all other countries similarly situated. The author very properly declines all pretensions to the exhibition of a complete catalogue of the vegetation of the islands which he visited. 'The environs

of Paris,' he observes, 'have been carefully explored during a century and a half, by our most able botanists; and yet, according to the remark of M. *de Saint-Pierre*, Flora has not condescended to shew them the bottom of her basket; since plants are every day discovered which eluded their search.'—With respect to Madagascar, whose vegetable stores are so abundant and so diversified, he professes to exhibit only an imperfect sample.

Some detached dissertations, originally designed to be incorporated in the Flora, will be published under the title of *Botanical Miscellanies*. The historical details of the voyage and journies, the observations which they suggested, and the description of Tristan d'Acunha, will also form the subject of a separate performance; though all the parts will be connected under the general title of 'a Voyage to the Southern Isles of Africa.'

By referring our readers to Dr. *Corrêa de Serra*'s exposition of the orange-tree family, inserted in the 5th volume of the Linnéan Transactions, we shall enable them to obtain a more distinct notion of the author's mode of discussing the genera, than by stating it in our own language. The plates are rather sketches than complete figures, but well calculated to give a faithful outline, and the true expression of the plant.—The first fasciculus contains representations of *Didymeles*, *Ptelidium*, *Hecatea*, *Dicoryphus*, *Bonamia*, and *Calypso*. The parts of fructification are rendered with great distinctness. So far, indeed, as we may be allowed to judge from a first specimen, we are disposed to augur very favourably of the undertaking; and we shall at present suspend our report by expressing a wish that works of a similar nature were more frequently executed in our own country.

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ART. XVI. *Œuvres Posthumes*, &c. *i. e.* The Posthumous Works of MARMONTEL, Historiographer of France, and perpetual Secretary of the French Academy. Consisting of Miscellanies. Printed from the Author's MSS. 12mo. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 5s.

As the gleanings of celebrated writers, collected in posthumous publications, often disappoint expectation, we confess that we entered on the perusal of this volume of the works of MARMONTEL, with some apprehension of finding them unequal to those charming productions of his genius which he himself gave to the world: but we soon found that our suspicion excited a false alarm, and that MARMONTEL was not disgraced

graced by any indiscreet zeal of his editor. The *Contes Moraux*, or Moral Tales, which occupy the greatest part of this little volume, discover the same genius and display the same attraction which distinguished the preceding Tales of this eminent writer; and they who possess his former works of fancy and instruction will gladly receive this supplemental volume.

In the first tale, intitled *Le Petit Voyage*, or the Excursion, the author introduces a discussion of those wild theoretical doctrines which were current during the French Revolution; and he shews that the principles, on which civil government and social order are established, accord with the instincts of nature and the dictates of sound philosophy. To his countrymen, we hope that the lessons here inculcated will be of use; and the easy and natural manner in which they are delivered adapts them for general perusal. Instead of an argument for wild liberty, equality, and the destruction of ranks, which may flatter revolutionary innovators, M. MARMONTEL exposes the pernicious maxims broached at the Revolution, and endeavours to bring the French people to entertain practicable notions of liberty and government. He even contends for the policy of maintaining the privileges of birth in a state; and he says that 'an hereditary nobility was and always will be the best money which has been invented, provided that, appropriated to public virtue, it forms the reward of eminent merit, and the pay of the hero.' They who attempt to render the people discontented, by raising hopes of amelioration in their condition, to the exclusion of care and industry, are reprobated as dangerous political deceivers; and he calls the reader to consider that a state of society, however perfectly constituted, can no more than a state of nature exclude all evils.

The importance of the subjects discussed in this piece, (which is divided into five parts,) and the clear light in which they are placed, render the whole dialogue peculiarly interesting. Are we to suppose, from this publication, that the French are become sensible of their revolutionary errors?

The second tale, *Plato in Sicily*, divided into seven parts, is more entertaining, and more in the style of the author's former *Contes*. Here the Athenian sage is represented as making the tour of the island of Sicily, in the time of Dionysius the tyrant of Syracuse, and his first rencontre is with *Damon* at the tomb of *Pythias*. The well known story of these '*heroes of friendship*,' as they are here called, is most affectingly related; and the additions which it receives from the genius of MARMONTEL increase the interest and improve the moral.—Plato, who is termed by the Sicilians the '*physician of the mind*,' in each

each of his subsequent promenades, meets with affecting incidents, and inculcates the purest sentiments of virtue and religion.

Of the remainder of the volume we have not much to say. It consist of letters from MARMONTEL to *Voltaire*, and to and from Frederic the Great; from the Count *de Cruz* and Baron *Vauswieter* to MARMONTEL; and of his *Eloge*, delivered by M. l'Abbé *Morellet* at the National Institute: which we expect to meet again, in the Memoirs of that body. The letter of Count *de Cruz*, written from Madrid, contains an amusing account of Spain: but the other epistles afford nothing remarkable.

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ART. XVII. *Essai sur la Vie*, &c. *i. e.* An Essay on the Life of the Great *Condé*. By LOUIS-JOSEPH DE BOURBON-CONDÉ, his fourth Descendant. 8vo. pp. 362. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 9s. sewed.

No period in the history of France is more familiar to general readers than that of the Fronde, nor is any personage who figured in it better known than the illustrious subject of this publication. The voluminous documents, which we posess relative to that time, are full of particulars of the conduct and exploits of the great *Condé*; and the pious regard of his descendant could not hope to disclose any new facts to us, with respect to his illustrious ancestor. Indeed, many striking traits, and many important incidents and transactions, preserved in other works, are here passed over: but the more material are rendered with fidelity, and narrated in a neat and pleasing manner. The accounts of the Prince's military achievements bespeak laudable pains on the part of the writer; they could only have been penned by a master of the art of war; and they have also the merit of including much in a small compass. This is eminently the case with regard to that part of the work which states the actions of the Prince, while he was in the service of Spain against his native country; his embarrassments in this situation have never been so well described; nor can we sufficiently praise the compendious manner in which the whole is detailed.

We are informed that the great *Condé* was in his life-time requested to write his own memoirs,—a practice very usual in his days,—and that his nephew, the Prince of *Conti*, offered to be his amanuensis, but that the modesty of the hero made him decline the undertaking.

The authenticity of the present work is said to be beyond all doubt; reference is made to a person who will produce

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an autograph copy, wholly in the writing of the author, and another corrected with his own hand; and also parts of his correspondence in the same character, with remarks in the hand-writing of Louis XV. Though the general merit of this performance be very considerable, passages occur in it which would scarcely have escaped the pen of a professed man of letters; and if this circumstance affords a presumption in favour of its genuineness, we must add at the same time that we meet with some expressions which do not well become the lips of a pious descendant of the illustrious hero:—but the work, by whomsoever composed, relies not on accessory considerations; it has sufficient merit in itself to insure a favourable reception.

Every reader of modern history is well informed of the particulars of the battle of Rocroi, and the circumstances connected with it. The relation of them has occupied the best pens, but they never, we believe, have been more luminously reported than in the volume before us. The detail is a model of this species of narrative, and more interesting matter alone prevents us from transcribing it. The Prince (then Duc *d'Enghien*,) was only twenty-one years old; and the Maréchal *d'Hôpital*, an experienced commander, employed under him in order to act as his Mentor, opposed his design: but the youthful hero was not to be diverted from his purpose. The battle cost the French only 2000 men, while the Spaniards lost 16,000, 21 pieces of cannon, 300 standards, and a great number of officers, among whom fell the brave Count *de Fuentes*. One of the happiest letters of *Voiture* was addressed to the young Prince on occasion of this grand exploit.

When, two years afterward, the Duc *d'Enghien* returned to court covered with laurels, the use which he made of his ascendancy 'was to promote with zeal the interest of his friends; his high occupations did not prevent him from diving into their minds, in order to learn their most secret inclinations, to favour such as were worthy, and to make fortune lend her assistance to the greatest charm of life.' It is also stated that, a reciprocal passion having existed between the Comte *de Chabot* and Madame *de Rohan*, but difficulties having opposed their union, the path was smoothed by the Duc *d'Enghien*, who procured for his friend the dignity of a duke and a peer; and that, the Chancellor *Seguier* having resented the clandestine marriage of his daughter the Marchioness *de Coislin* with M. *de Laval*, the hero of Rocroi employed his good offices to reconcile the family, and succeeded.

'At the celebrated battle of Norlinden, the young Duke took from the enemy almost all their artillery, and 40 standards. Many officers

of distinction fell; *Turenne* and *Grammont* were slightly wounded; the Duke had two horses killed under him and three wounded, received a violent contusion on his thigh and a wound in his elbow from a pistol ball, and more than twenty balls passed through his clothes: but his courage, his fortune, and his genius triumphed over the pain, the resistance, the obstacles, and the dangers with which he had to struggle. Overcome at last by the fatigues of the campaign, he fell ill; his malady became serious; his life was declared in danger; and the consternation was general in the army, and among the people. The Queen and the Prince his father sent to him the most able physicians of the kingdom; and their art, the good constitution of their patient, and his happy destiny, which reserved him for many future laurels, restored him to the wishes of the public. He departed for Paris, and was more affected by the tears of joy which he perceived to be shed by those around him, than by the enthusiastic acclamations which accompanied them.'

Our occupations will not permit us to follow the Prince through the exploits which signalized the early part of his career; nor to observe on the disgusting narrative of cabals and intrigues, which drove the hero from the path of loyalty and duty to join the standard of the enemies of his king. The step, however unpardonable, was more occasioned by the injustice of the Queen, the practices of *Mazarin*, and the spirit of the times, than by any defect in the judgment and principles of the ill-treated Prince. The consideration in which he was held is shewn by the circumstances, that, while he was a fugitive from his country, and serving in the armies of Spain, he had envoys in almost all the courts of Europe, who were received in the same manner with those of electors and other princes who were not sovereigns; that Spain required no other documents than his certificates, for the money advanced to his troops; and that, when Charles II. sought an asylum in the Low Countries, *Condé* obliged the Spaniards to treat that monarch with all the respect due to his rank. The Prince was offered, it is said, the supreme command of the Spanish army, but the appointment was not effected because he would not take the oath of allegiance to the King of Spain; and when in the same situation the crown of Poland was offered to him, he would not accept of it without the consent of his liege sovereign:—facts which seem to warrant the observation, that this great General rebelled against Anne of Austria and *Mazarin*, rather than against his lawful king.

The treaty of the *Pyrenées* restored to his country its first and most illustrious subject; and during the famed conferences in the Isle of Pheasants, the interest of the Prince scarcely engaged less attention in Europe than that of sovereigns. It did not escape Don Louis that the glory of his master was concerned

cerned in supporting this celebrated man; the resistance and address of *Mazarin* were vain; and the re-establishment of the Prince in all his honors, estates, offices, titles, and governments, was required and obtained. It was also agreed that he should receive a million of crowns from Spain.—The histories of the time record the honors paid to him during his progress to Provence, and the reception which he experienced from the king and from the cardinal.

On the death of *Mazarin*, *Condé* was desired by his friends to court the royal favour, with the view of succeeding to the place of that powerful minister: but he disdained the arts by which ascendancy in cabinets is obtained; he knew how to possess himself of power, but was a stranger to the practices which insure the smiles of princes. He is said to have been the first to whom Louis XIV. communicated his design of governing by himself, in which resolution the Prince made every effort to confirm him. The counsels which the Prince imparted and the services which he rendered to his royal master, in the invasion of Holland, and in the wars which were the result of that most wanton and unjust measure, down to the period of his retirement from the army, are among the parts of modern history best known. Never had a king a more zealous, faithful, and able subject; a fact of which Louis appears to have been fully sensible, as appears by the compliments which he paid him amid those marks of reserve which, on account of the defection of his early days, he ever manifested.

'In the first encampment in the expedition against Holland, Louis ordered the most splendid pavilion to be fitted up for the Prince. The latter, in astonishment, went and complained of it to the King; who replied that it was done by his orders, that he regarded him as his General, and that it was his will that he should enjoy all the distinction which belonged to the character. Louis XIV., without being a genius, had discernment sufficient to found his glory on rendering effective the talents which his reign had produced.'

During the same war, the great *Condé* came to Versailles to pay his respects at court; and when Louis advanced to meet him at the top of the great stairs, the Prince, who ascended the steps with difficulty, apologized to his Majesty: the latter made the well-known reply; "Cousin, do not hurry yourself; when a person is so loaded with laurels as you are, it is no wonder that he moves with difficulty." When in 1678 he requested leave to retire, the king answered, "Cousin, I consent: but it will be with regret that I shall see myself deprived of the counsels of the greatest man in my kingdom."

Respecting the retirement of the Prince, various comments were made at the time: alluding to which, the present author adds;

'Let us forget for a moment the chimera of grandeur, and let us cast our eyes on the course of human life, in which we shall discover the cause of this resolution. At a certain age, experience removes the bandage which has hitherto prevented us from seeing reality; this is done by degrees; the illusion does not vanish all at once, but grows weaker, and at length wholly disappears. Fatigued by a vain chace after good, through tortuous paths, strewed with both thorns and flowers, along which the impulse of example and the fever of the passions hurry our steps, we pause; and soon we recall to our recollection a strait and even path, not before tried, that of repose: we seek it, find it, follow it, and attain our object. Such is the usual progress of human life; and the habit of atchieving great things does not make us cease to be men. At the age of 58 years, bending under his laurels, satiated with success, and grown old in glory, the Prince saw himself compelled to pay to nature the tribute which she claimed as her right; and which was more a debt on his part than on that of most others, on account of the brilliant use which he had made of her gifts.'

Numerous instances of magnanimity, generosity, disinterestedness, and sensibility, displayed by this illustrious warrior, give interest to the pages before us: but we are not tempted particularly to advert to them, because they occur in the histories and memoirs of the period. His intreaties in favour of the oppressed inhabitants of the conquered provinces of Holland evince not less his wisdom than his compassionate feelings. In favour of his application, he urged the policy of engaging the good-will of these distressed people: but the answer of *Louvois* was, "we have more need of their money than of their favourable regards:" a sentiment worthy of the brutal persecutor who advised the repeal of the edict of Nantes, and the dragooning of *the Reformed* out of their religion.

'Retired to Chantilly, which nature seems to have destined for the retreat of a great man, he undertook to improve and embellish it. All the changes which he made, and all the works which he formed, bear the stamp of his genius; nothing trivial ever occurred to his mind, and nothing suited it that did not bear a noble and great character. The society which he collected around him proved the elevation of his soul; and Chantilly became the resort of all who were illustrious in every line, generals, magistrates, negociators, men of letters, and artists. The Prince regarded nothing as below him but mediocrity. Eminent himself in more pursuits than one, and informed on a variety of subjects, the hero was seen to converse with *Créquy*, *Luxembourg*, or *Chamilly*; the statesman, with *d'Estrade*, *Barillon*, or *Polignac*; the prince, well versed in the laws, with *Boucherat* or *Lamoignon*; the connoisseur, with *Mansard*, *Le Nôtre*, or *Coisevox*;

Boisevox; the eloquent man, with *Bossuet* and *Bourdaloue;* the philosopher, with *la Bruyere* and *la Rochefoucauld*; the man of letters, with *Boileau* and *Racine*, Madame *Scudéry*, and Madame *la Fayette*, and many other persons of talents and merit.—*Molière*, a great favourite of the Prince, was dead.'—

'The charm of this society did not cause the Prince to neglect the calls of beneficence. The unfortunate approached him with confidence, and retired content; he did not wait for the entreaties of the indigent, but searched for them in order to relieve them; and the pleasure of rendering others happy was more valued by him than all the brilliancy of his glory.'—

'In the society of Chantilly, religion was often the subject of discussion. *Condé* submitted his faith to the test of reason, and sought the aid of philosophy to dissipate his doubts. Though he had risen superior to superstitious prejudices, in his public character he ever paid them homage. Surrounded by philosophers who were little confirmed in the faith, he commanded public prayers for the success of his arms; and by this appearance of devotion he engaged the good wishes of the catholics of the conquered Dutch provinces.'

It is admitted, however, by the author, that the prayers of the heretics at this time prevailed over those of the orthodox. He farther remarks

'That there is a period in life, at which reason and more frequently our infirmities apprize us of our approaching end; and the desire of existence, the horror of annihilation, the daring fertility of the imagination, transport our ideas beyond the scene which we feel that we are soon to quit. Religious ideas, strongly impressed in youth on our tender organs, but extinguished by the passions in proportion as they are allowed to gain strength, again revive as the same organs begin to grow feeble. The Prince, who had reached the age of 64, had lived in the neglect of all the duties of religion: but this remissness had no other basis than his doubts. The enemy of open impiety not less than of superstition, he had marched all his life as it were in a middle course between religion and incredulity: but the conversion of the Princess Palatine, the edifying death of the Prince of *Conti*, and above all that of his sister the Duchesse of *Longueville*, had more weight with him than the reflections and discussions of forty years.—This conversion of the Prince, however, caused no change in his mode of life.'

On some occasions, the present writer subjects himself to the charge of bigotry: but the following reflections, which close his account of the Prince's conversion, are altogether in another spirit. He asks

'Whether the morality of fine minds be not that of the gospel? What interest can we have in finding a great difference between virtuous men? Do not religion and true philosophy equally seek the greatest good of man? Why investigate causes, when the effects are praise-worthy? Patience under evils, resignation under sufferings, have they not the same merit in our eyes? Do not gentle and pure

manners equally characterize the true philosopher, and the true christian? *Condé* learned to be both the one and the other; he did not confine his regret for past errors to his oratory; but the alms, which he distributed in the provinces that war had laid waste, distinguished his conversion nearly as much as his exploits had signalized the period of his errors. Such were the fruits of the Great *Condé*'s conversion.'

A very pathetic account of the last scenes of this illustrious man, in which he supported the character of his past life, is followed by an extremely able summary of his military atchievements and public services, and brings us to the close of this work. Latin letters, addressed by the Prince when a school-boy to his father, a paper on the rank of the French Princes of the Blood, and the eloquent funeral oration of *Bossuet* on the death of the hero, form a kind of supplement to the volume.

We recommend this publication to young men, who are warranted by their merit or their connections in looking up to advancement in the career of arms:—but, by this specification, we do not mean to intimate that it is not well adapted to engage and instruct all classes of readers.

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ART. XVIII. *Mémoires du Comte* JOSEPH DE PUISAYE, &c. *i. e.* Memoirs of Count JOSEPH DE PUISAYE, Lieutenant-General; which contain a History of the French Royalist Party during the late Revolution. Vols. 3 and 4. 8vo. Boards. Budd, London.

WE have here the third and fourth volumes of the Memoirs of an individual whose public career was limited to a few years, and yet the writer coolly talks of the future volumes of the same work! In the name of common sense, what right has M. DE PUISAYE to bespeak so considerable a portion of general attention? Indeed, he has already made a claim to a far larger share of it than was in any way his due. Why is the work thus protracted so much beyond all reasonable bounds? We complained of this extension in the former parts, and mentioned the suspicions which that mode of proceeding must raise in our minds: yet the episodes in the pages before us are rather more numerous than in those which preceded them, and serve very much to strengthen unfavourable conclusions with respect to the author, who is the advocate of his own cause. Will it not be inferred that the narrative is designedly interrupted, and that the writer is afraid to come to the point?—To a few of the more curious facts which are here presented to us, we shall advert; leaving those who may have a taste for common-place reflections, and such incidents as

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bear no relation to general history, to consult the production itself. After having toiled through four volumes, we do not find the matter in dispute to be yet sufficiently elucidated to enable us to form any judgment respecting it. If the author has a tale to relate which will bear the light, we can only say that his manner of detailing it is most unfortunate, since it is precisely that which would be adopted by a man who wished to disguise the truth.

It is here contended that France, during the whole course of the revolution, was never for a moment a republican state; that *Robespierre* was all the while aiming at absolute power; that the monster *Marat* was constantly demanding a dictator; and that the savage *Danton* professed to act for Louis XVII.—With all deference to the author, this is, we apprehend, to confound the secret designs of the leaders of a state with its civil constitution. According to such reasoning, a republic *never* existed, and Athens and Rome were at no period free commonwealths. He who can set up paradoxes so extravagant, and render them plausible, will have the credit of being able to confound facts, and to draw such conclusions from them as best suit his purposes. Is M. DE P. prepared to state that the French arms owed no part of their success to republican enthusiasm, and that the councils and forces of France made no progress in the scheme of republicanizing Europe? If he can persuade readers of this fact, he will find it no difficult matter to cause it to be believed, whatever the reality may have been, that he, M. DE PUISAYE, in all the transactions of Britanny, acted an able, wise, and ingenuous part.

At the time of the arrival of M. DE P. in England, the affairs of the Western insurgents were in a promising state; and it appears that the British ministry was anxious to lend them assistance, and to co-operate with them. He was consequently well received by administration, who without loss of time entered into negotiations with him. He says that he came to this country as the constituted representative and chief of a large force united together in the cause of royalty, animated by the utmost zeal and most determined courage; and he observes that he was the only Frenchman who was able to offer to the British government an equivalent for its succours.

M. DE P. is of opinion that if, at the period when the expedition to Quiberon was preparing, the Regent (Louis XVII. being then alive) and the Comte *d'Artois* had been resident at the same place, so as to be able to hold their councils in common, the intrigue to defeat the effect of that diversion in their

favour would have failed; and that consequently the most efficacious scheme which had been adopted since the commencement of the revolution, for restoring these princes to their rights, would have had a fair chance of succeeding: while, he says, the distance which separated them favoured the enemies of the writer, and the opposers of his plans. The Comte *d'Artois*, he tells us, set a value on his services, and honoured him with his confidence: but the Regent (now Louis XVIII.) was beset by deception, perfidy, and cunning, and he regarded M. DE P. as a traitor. What these efficacious means were, and how the ill opinion entertained of the Lieutenant-General by *Monsieur* led to ill consequences, is not at all explained to us: but this mysterious passage may probably be elucidated in some future volume.

It is but justice to this author to state a few of the particulars of his intercourse with Mr. Windham. 'The esteem of Mr. Windham,' says he, 'was the more flattering to me, as it was the price of the purity and earnestness of my zeal for my king and country. Had I hesitated, had I been lukewarm, should I have engaged the regards of a man who is so alive to the feelings and calls of duty?' The same ægis, he very spiritedly intimates, protects him against the most distant suspicion of treachery. He tells us also that Mr. W.'s regard for him did not cease, when the hope of deriving benefit from him disappeared, but on the contrary has remained unchanged during every instant of nine years of persecution, misfortune, and disaster. 'The calumnies,' he observes, 'with which I have been assailed, and the ill treatment which I have endured, have had no other effect on him than that of protecting me by a continuance of his friendship, and of indemnifying me by fresh testimonies of esteem.'—The full benefit of this high testimonial to the character and views of M. DE P., we by no means wish to diminish or undervalue. It is doubtless eminently flattering, and as decisive as any of the kind can be. We shall merely remark that the style and manner of the narrative do not strengthen the presumption which this very honourable support is calculated to raise.

The Count farther informs us that, when Mr. Windham became convinced that nothing farther could be done for royalty in the Western provinces, he exerted all his influence over the leaders of the insurgents to avert the scourge of civil war, and manifested the utmost anxiety to stop the useless effusion of blood. M. DE P. states that he is possessed of various documents, which record the lively disquietudes testified by Mr. W. on this occasion.

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The following relation is little creditable to the leading emigrants, and serves to confirm the unfavourable opinion which has been entertained of the generality of them:

'When it was suspected that I was treating with the British government about a counter-revolution, I became the subject of conversation in all the circles and coteries of my countrymen; and many and various were the observations made on me and my project. All this was perfectly natural: but will it be believed that, without knowing in the least what were my intentions, my plans, my measures, my relations with the French Princes, and the confidence which they reposed in me, there were among them men who declared at once, and circulated by their emissaries, that my arrival in London, and my connection with the English government, promised no good to the royalist cause? Can we sufficiently wonder that, among the same persons, a confederacy should have been formed of which the only object was to watch me, to counteract my proceedings, to calumniate me with the Regent, and secretly to undermine the foundations on which the success of my enterprizes could alone repose?'

Count DE PUISAYE asserts that to the success of this plot against him was owing the failure of the unfortunate expedition to Quiberon; with all the calamities, private and public, incident to and consequent on that melancholy event. If this and similar accounts be true, are not these emigrants a devoted people? Were the distresses and hardships of poverty and banishment insufficient to make them act from a sense of a common interest? Were their habits of intrigue so inveterate, that they would put to hazard, and even defeat, the restoration of their lawful sovereign, rather than that an *inconnu*, an obscure rival, should have the credit of the measure? Can Europe place any reliance on such men? Greater traitors by far to their legitimate monarch than his rebellious subjects, men of this sort must be regarded as the chief stay of the usurper's throne, and worthy only to crouch under his oppressions!

If the author complains bitterly of the pernicious intrigues of his leading countrymen, he speaks in the highest terms of the discernment, ingenuousness, experience in business, and magnanimity, of the Comte *d'Artois;* and we are told that it was his ardent wish to appear at the head of the Royalists, and that he would have realized it but for the miserable intrigues of those who beset his person. We cannot but observe, however, that to us this apology for the unfortunate Prince appears very unsatisfactory. What man of a superior mind was ever long the dupe of weak and wicked counsellors? Besides, without plans much more liberal and comprehensive than any of which we ever heard as adopted by the royal party, we do not

not think that a material change could have been wrought by the appearance of a Bourbon Prince at the head of the Western insurgents. Had he come forwards seasonably with conciliation in his heart, and prepared to make palatable and wise concessions, we know not what the effect might have been: but his mere appearance of itself would never have given a decided turn to affairs.

The view of human nature which the subsequent passage furnishes, though far from flattering, deserves attention:

'When it became known that I was invested with authority by the French Princes, that my mission was authentic, and that I enjoyed credit with the British government, this credit was as usual marvellously exaggerated, and the crowd directed its views towards me. This short period abounded in instruction as to the nature of the human heart. I received thousands of letters which contained assurances of devotion, and testimonies of regard, which came for the most part from those who have since acted as the echoes of my enemies. I was besieged by memorials, pamphlets, anonymous letters, plans, projects, and declarations of regard for my person, from individuals to whom I was wholly unknown; accompanied by professions of admiration for my talents, and panegyrics of my virtues; matters which intoxicate fools, and which force the man of understanding to sigh over the abjectness and insignificance of his species. The reader does not expect to be introduced to this *dépôt* of adulation and lies: my friends know what value I ever affixed to it. I preserve it for the instruction of my daughter and my nephews; and if it falls into their hands when I am no more, they will find in it preservatives in abundance against deception and pride.'

It has often been observed that, if the avocations of men in high public situations were better known, and more considered, such insight would tend greatly to disarm the envy with which they are too apt to be regarded. An abundant share of this employment seems to have fallen to the lot of M. DE P., while he sustained a public character in this country:

'I had to maintain (says he) a correspondence with the French Princes, with the military and civil committee of Britanny, and with secret partisans in other districts of France; with Captain d'Auvergne at Jersey, and with the principal officers under his command; to hold conferences with the ministers in general, and with Mr. Windham in particular, the Duc *d'Harcourt*, &c; to purchase and transport arms, clothing, ammunition, and succours of all kinds for the royalist army; to compose memorials, to resolve objections, to discuss questions; letters, commissions, or projects of the emigrants, to read, sollicit, or answer; to select officers, and to convey them to Britanny; to provide for their wants, equipment, and departure; to hold interviews with many of them; to give instructions in writing for them, and succours to sollicit for families

and individuals; to decide on offers of service; new corps to raise, to form, and to organize; intrigues to defeat, enmities to combat, and ill-will to reconcile, &c. It will be admitted that all this was enough to occupy the time and faculties of a man whose constitution had been exhausted by the duties of the hardest warfare that was ever known.'

According to M. DE P.,

'The French revolution owed its first success to the corruption, the misery, and the violence of the populace of cities; and it might have been arrested in its progress by the courage of the inhabitants of the country. These two classes, of which the one is the most vile, while the other is the most useful part of society, constitute the people of every country, and the physical strength of a state. United, nothing can resist them; opposed to one another, the latter, if well conducted, must prove victorious. They are equally liable to be actuated by enthusiasm; the one feeling it on the side of mischief, the other on that of good. The one has more activity, the other more of firmness and constancy. The one, always dissatisfied, ever seeks change; the other is averse from innovation. In the one, religion does not controul the passions; in the other, simple habits and virtuous education, and a reverence for what is superior to man, generate confidence, union, subordination, and order. Their superior number, and their greater corporeal vigour, render those who are taken from the plough the prevailing force of every country.'

However plausible in statement, this theory fails in practice. In most of the French provinces, with the exception of the Western, we have been informed that the peasants were revolutionary; and in Ireland, we do not find that the same class is more conspicuous for loyalty than the inhabitants of towns. The simple and pure manners of a country-life are a better subject in the hands of a poet, than in those of a calculating statesman.

Nothing can be more just than the observations made by the author, on the ignorance under which the emigrants laboured in regard to the state of things in revolutionary France; or his censure on the total want of accommodation on their part to the changes which had there taken place. It is truly remarked by him, that two years produced greater alterations in that country than are generally effected by two centuries in ordinary times. Those who had not quitted France till as late as 1791 were become total strangers to their native land in 1793; so great had been the change in principles, opinions, pursuits, and even in habits and usages. 'The emigrants,' he adds, 'persevered till it was too late in this wilful blindness; and the royalists who remained in France did not escape the infatuation.'

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We also fully coincide with the Count in the ensuing sentiments:

'If, instead of having in pay innumerable armies to draw the French forces to every point of the compass, in order to inure them to discipline; if, instead of disputing with them for plains and fortresses, for rocks and sands, the momentary possession or loss of which did not in any degree affect the object which interested the whole world:—and all which diversions only served to promote the ends of the common enemies of mankind, and to increase their audacity:—if instead of acting this unwise part, the cabinets of Europe had *bonâ fide* united to strengthen the hands of those Frenchmen who preserved their fidelity to their religion, their country, and their King, it is not too much to say, that the world would not have been in a worse condition than that in which it is at present.'

M. DE PUISAYE positively denies that the British ministers caused false assignats to be manufactured in London: but we fear that it is too true that they not only connived at but gave a sort of sanction to the practice. If our recollection does not greatly fail us, it came out in our courts of justice, that paper was made in this country for the purpose of forging assignats, and that the duty on it had been remitted by government, on having security that it was to be applied to no other purpose;—and a venerable judge, if we can trust the same recollection, vindicated the proceeding as consonant to the law of nations. With all due deference to that grave authority, we are persuaded that, whatever lawyers may decide on it, it was a practice which the dictates of humanity and the maxims of sound policy loudly condemned. We do not believe that, in an inverted case, a similar *dictum* would proceed from the same high seat.

A great proportion of the Count's pages is devoted to expose the machinations of a set of men who are here designated as the agents of Paris and London; persons who, at each of these places, held communication with the regent's court at Verona. Nothing can equal the presumption, treachery, and baseness, with which they are here charged; and intrigues more foul and mischievous, if we are to credit M. DE PUISAYE, never disgraced the most corrupt court in its most secure and prosperous days, than those which are carried on by the counsellors and agents of the unfortunate ex princes. The latter of the present volumes is wholly occupied with these details: the statements of which, though by much too minute, are not uninstructive; while the reflections on them bespeak a well informed mind. Valuable and striking observations are made on civil commotions, on the management of

parties,

parties, and on maxims and rules of policy: but that these are appropriately introduced in a work of which the object is to vindicate the conduct of an individual, in one single transaction, we are wholly at a loss to perceive.

The Count DE PUISAYE is unquestionably a man of ability and information. If he wishes to deal fairly by the public, and to engage its favourable regard, we advise him no longer to trifle with it as he has hitherto done, but, in the volume which he announces, let him fully meet the charges advanced against him. We own that we are completely tired by these tedious narratives; and our memory presents to us no instance of a personal vidication spun to any thing like the length of these memoirs.

Jo.

ART. XIX. *Manuel de Trigonométrie Pratique, &c.; i. e.* A Manual of Practical Trigonometry. By the Abbe DELAGRIVE, F.R.S. *London*, and Geographer in Paris. Revised and augmented by Tables of Logarithms for the Use of Engineers, &c. By A.A.L. REYNAUD, Professor at the *Polymatic* School, &c. 8vo. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 7s.

WE may expose our own ignorance of books and of authors, but we certainly mean to cast no oblique slur on the reputation of M. DE DELAGRIVE, when we affirm that the Trigonometry of that author was unknown to us, before the words *Nouvelle Edition* advised us of its existence. There are, in our opinion, within the same compass, trigonometrical treatises in France much superior to the one before us, both for matter and arrangement. Indeed, we regard the present as deficient in these points: the trigonometrical formulæ are sparingly afforded, and, when any present themselves, they are not very neatly deduced; and it is impossible from this book to learn trigonometry theoretically, and difficult to acquire it practically.

This manual was *intended*, no doubt, to teach trigonometry in its practical uses: to enable students to understand and to conduct those processes which are necessary, in measuring an arc of the meridian; for this operation requires a practical knowlege of surveying in its largest extent;—and with reference to this measurement of an arc of the meridian, rules and tables are here laid down and constructed: for instance, for reducing angles observed in one plane, to their value in another plane; for reducing observations made at one part of a station, to the centre or the observed part of such station, &c.—The latter portion of the volume is occupied by tables of

logarithms, and of sines, tangents, &c.; and to these, the editor has prefixed an explanation.

We have not the means of present reference to the *Encyclopédie Méthodique:* but, if we recollect rightly, M. Delagrive is the author of the Trigonometry inserted in that work.

R.W.

Art. XX. *Moyens de conserver la Santé des Habitans des Campagnes*, &c.; *i. e.* On the Means of preserving the Health of Country-people, &c. By Madame Gacon-Dufour, Author of several Works on Rural and Domestic Economy. 12mo. pp. 330. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 4s.

This volume presents to us a phænomenon of not very frequent occurrence, a medical work written by a female. Madame Gacon-Dufour appears to have spent the greatest part of her life in the country; and in consequence of a turn for observation, and a desire of benefiting the condition of those around her, she has been led to compose this treatise on the health of the peasantry. It is unnecessary to dwell on the importance of the object; yet it must be acknowleged that it has not hitherto met with that degree of attention which it seemed to demand.—The publication before us, though of small dimensions, embraces the discussion of a great variety of topics; such as directions for the construction of the habitations of the poor, for their diet and clothing, and for the nursing and management of their children; observations on the causes which render the air unfit for respiration, on the injurious tendency of many of the operations in which the peasantry are occasionally engaged, and the means for obviating these effects, &c. &c. on which, and other similar subjects, we have some plain and generally judicious remarks, the result of common experience, but little perverted by theory.

Besides the more substantial merits of this volume, we have been interested in the perusal of it, in consequence of the information which it incidentally contains respecting the customs and manners of the French peasantry. On such points, it is difficult to keep the mind free from national bias: but the impression, which is left by Mad. Gacon-Dufour's work, is not favourable with respect either to the comforts or the state of civilization of those for whose use it is intended.

Bos.

Art.

ART. XXI. *Dictionnaire Portatif de Géographie Universelle*, &c; *i. e.* A Dictionary of Universal Geography, including a comparative View of that of the Antients, of the middle Ages, and of modern Times; presenting a geographical, historical, political, and statistical View of the Globe, and of its Partitions in different Ages, as well as its actual State;—the Denominations and the Divisions both antient and modern, of Countries, Kingdoms, Republics, Cities, Towns, &c:—their History, natural and artificial Productions, Commerce, Climate, Situation, Population, Manners, &c;—and more especially the State of antient and modern France. Digested after the Plan of *Vosgien*, from various Writers. By P. C. V. BOISTE. Accompanied by a Quarto Atlas, consisting of forty five plates. 8vo. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe.

WE say in England that "Good wine needs no bush:" but we suppose that in France puffing is necessary to *help off* even a good thing; otherwise, we cannot account for the pompous display of the merits of this useful Gazetteer. M. BOISTE talks of the multitude of authors whom he has consulted; of the compression of a vast quantity of matter into a narrow space; of his laconic style, consisting for the most part of substantives and adjectives, similar to that of *Linné* in his Natural History; of his attention to accuracy; and of his incessant endeavour to make history keep pace with geography. The compilation is an evidence of the patient industry of its author, and will be very useful to most readers: but we could not avoid a smile at seeing a volume, consisting of 1077 pages, denominated *Portatif*, for it can be a pocket volume only to a Brogdignagian.

In a work comprising such a vast multitude of articles, many omissions and errors will be expected to occur; and we have discovered several of both: but their enumeration would evince a minuteness of criticism to which, in the present instance, we are not inclined to descend. Though M. BOISTE professes to have consulted Crutwell in his account of England, the proper names of our counties and towns are often incorrectly spelt, and the notices will be unsatisfactory to the English reader. The 220,000 inhabitants of Norfolk, for instance, will not approve of being all called *chicaneurs*. We know not what is meant by *Etomar* being the chief place in the isle of Thanet.

The exhibition of the antient with the modern names of places is very useful; and with all the defects of the present work, (which, whenever they are discovered, should be corrected in the margin,) we venture to recommend it as a valuable

able book of geographical reference. We hope that, when Europe is at rest, and the territorial portions of princes can be confidently assigned, an undertaking similar to that of M. Boiste will be executed in our own country.

Mo-y.

Art. XXII. *Explication de la Fable*, &c.; *i. e.* An Explication of Mythology by History, and by Ægyptian Hieroglyphics, the real Source of Mythology. By M. J. B. Lionnois, Dean of the Faculty of Arts in the University of Nancy. 12mo. 3 Vols. Paris.—London, De Boffe. Price 9s. sewed.

It is certainly to be desired that young persons should be introduced to the nature and foundation of the antient mythology, as far as the records of history will enable us to arrive at the sources from which the idolatry of the antients was derived. Diodorus Siculus is on this account a most valuable and interesting author; and although he is neither to be admired for his style, nor is worthy of dependance for every position and fact which he has stated, yet the remains of his history which have descended to us furnish a most valuable illustration, and throw great and important light on the fictions of early times.

On an inspection of the present volumes, we perceived that the information contained in the Greek historian had not been neglected; and in the first article, we also found that recourse had been had to the curious fragment of Sanchoniathon, which is preserved in Eusebius. On this account, we were led at first to give the author credit for much industry and ingenuity in drawing up this treatise: but we soon recollected a similar work, though far more copious and extensive, by the Abbé *Bannier;* and on turning to that valuable performance, we discovered that M. Lionnois had composed this publication altogether of *excerpta quædam* from the mythology of *Bannier*. Even the introductory remarks are taken from that Abbé; and yet no confession, no preface whatever, apologizes for the liberty which he has used!—The third volume contains a compressed account of Egypt, derived from late descriptions of that country.—This is a most ingenious mode of *making* a *new* book.

W. Man.g

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